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REPORT
OF THE
COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION
FOR

THE YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1912

VOLUME I



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THE UNITED STATES
BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

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COMMISSIONERS.

HENRY BARNARD, LL. D.,

March 14, 1867, to March 15, 1870.

JOHN EATON, PH. D., LL. D.,

March 16, 1870, to August 5, 1886.

NATHANIEL H. R. DAWSON, L. H. D.,

August 6, 1886, to September 3, 1889.

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, PH. D., LL. D.,

September 12, 1889, to June 30, 1906.

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, PH. D., LL. D.,

July 1, 1906, to June 30, 1911.

PHILANDER PRIESTLEY CLAXTON, LITT. D.,

July 8, 1911, to date.

CONTENTS OF VOLUME I.

	Page. xv
THE COMMISSIONER'S INTRODUCTION-----	
CHAPTER I.—SURVEY OF EDUCATION, 1911-12.	
I. Introductory -----	1
I. Current criticisms of the public schools-----	2
The changing purpose of education-----	3
The uniformity protest-----	4
The high school and the "standard"-----	4
The school's wider activities-----	5
The problem of organization-----	6
"Too much" or "too little" supervision?-----	6
Criticisms of curriculum—the three R's argument-----	7
"Subjects out of touch with life"-----	8
Latin and the public high school-----	9
Rigidity of the curriculum-----	9
"Practical" and "cultural" subjects-----	10
The quality of instruction—the teachers-----	10
Inadequacy of the supply of teachers-----	11
Contradictory criticisms of methods-----	11
Examinations and home work-----	12
Measuring the public schools by results-----	13
Low attendance-----	13
Elimination of the "average" pupil-----	13
Inaccuracy and the public school-----	14
Democracy and the public school-----	15
II. Reconstructive programs-----	15
School inquiries-----	16
Making known the schools' needs-----	17
Formulation of standards and programs-----	18
Reorganizing the elementary and high school-----	18
Prof. Hanus's formulation-----	19
III. Vocational education-----	21
Vocational guidance-----	24
IV. The Montessori method-----	26
V. Teachers and the high cost of living-----	28
VI. Academic celebrations-----	32
Inauguration of President Hibben-----	32
President Meiklejohn, of Amherst-----	33
Other administrative changes-----	34
Academic anniversaries-----	35
New York State education building-----	36
VII. A national university-----	36
VIII. Benefactions-----	39
Distribution of the Peabody fund-----	39
Carnegie foundation for the advancement of teaching-----	39
General education board-----	39
Million-dollar endowments-----	40
Other benefactions announced-----	40
IX. International relations-----	43
New official arrangements-----	43
Regular exchanges-----	43
Other academic visitors-----	43
The Prussian exchanges-----	44
Other international visits-----	45
The cosmopolitan club movement in Germany-----	46
Association for the international exchange of students-----	46
The Rhodes scholarships-----	47
Chinese students and the revolution-----	48

CHAPTER II.—EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION IN 1912.

	Page.
Legislative conditions in the several States-----	49
Arizona-----	49
New Mexico-----	49
Louisiana-----	50
Kentucky-----	50
New York-----	50
New Jersey-----	50
Massachusetts-----	51
Rhode Island-----	51
Virginia-----	52
Georgia-----	52
Maryland-----	53
South Carolina-----	53
Mississippi-----	53
State boards and officers-----	53
County boards and officers-----	56
Municipal school boards-----	58
School finance-----	59
Business methods-----	60
School bonds-----	61
School buildings-----	63
Teachers-----	64
Examination and certification-----	64
Salaries and tenure-----	64
Pensions-----	65
Arizona-----	65
Virginia-----	66
Maryland-----	67
New Jersey-----	67
New York-----	67
Local laws-----	67
Normal schools-----	68
Compulsory attendance-----	68
Kentucky-----	68
Maryland-----	69
Child labor-----	70
Arizona-----	70
Maryland-----	70
Mississippi-----	70
Massachusetts-----	71
New York-----	71
Messenger laws-----	71
Transportation of pupils and consolidation of schools-----	71
New Jersey-----	71
Kentucky-----	72
South Carolina-----	72
Textbooks-----	73
Playgrounds-----	73
High schools-----	74
New Mexico-----	74
Arizona-----	75
Agricultural and industrial training-----	75
Laws for the "rural uplift"-----	76
Schools of agriculture and the industries-----	77
Addendum-----	80
Higher educational institutions-----	80
Professional schools; professional practice-----	81
Schools for special classes-----	81
Welfare of children; dependents and delinquents-----	81

CHAPTER III.—HIGHER EDUCATION.

Currents of progress-----	83
Correlation of State-supported institutions-----	84
Central boards of control-----	88

CONTENTS OF VOLUME I.

V

	Page.
Standard colleges and junior colleges	97
Consolidation of institutions	102
Competition and cooperation of colleges	104
Correlation of universities and theological schools	107
New institutions	110
Reed College, Portland, Oreg.	110
George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.	113
Rice Institute of Liberal and Technical Learning, Houston, Tex.	114
Education for journalism	115
Training teachers for elementary schools	119

CHAPTER IV.—CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1911-12.

Introduction	125
I. Administration	126
II. Reorganized school systems	129
III. Professional investigations	132
IV. City superintendents	136
V. The courses of study	138
Simplification of the course of study	139
Shortened elementary courses	140
Departmental teaching in the grammar grades	141
Differentiation in grammar-school courses	142
European history in the elementary schools	143
Moral training	143
Time schedules	145
VI. Industrial education	145
VII. Kindergartens	148
VIII. Teachers' salaries and pensions	149
IX. High schools	152
Shorter courses	152
Junior and senior high schools	153
High-school fraternities	156
X. Vacation schools	159
XI. The physical welfare of school children	162
Medical inspection	162
Open-air schools	162
School lunches	165
Sex instruction	166
"Quiet zones" around schools	169
XII. Miscellaneous activities	170
School social centers	170
Main facts	170
School gardens	170
School savings banks	172
Playgrounds	173

CHAPTER V.—RURAL EDUCATION.

The interest in rural school affairs bearing results	177
Division of rural education in the Bureau of Education	180
Rural committee of the National Education Association	182
State rural school commissions	185
Iowa	185
North Dakota	187
Wisconsin	188
State supervisors and inspectors of rural schools	189
County rural school supervisors	192
County rural school industrial supervisors	193
State organizers of school improvement associations	196
Boys' and girls' agricultural clubs	197
School credit for home industrial work	202
Important legislation affecting rural education	206
Recent publications on rural education	208

	Page.
Progress in several States-----	212
Alabama-----	212
Colorado-----	213
Connecticut-----	213
Georgia-----	213
Indiana-----	214
Kentucky-----	214
Maine-----	216
Massachusetts-----	217
Michigan-----	217
Mississippi-----	217
Missouri-----	219
North Carolina-----	219
South Carolina-----	220
Tennessee-----	222
Washington-----	222
West Virginia-----	223
Wisconsin-----	225

CHAPTER VI.—ROMAN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS.

Sources of information-----	227
School organization-----	228
Diocesan school boards-----	229
Professional supervision-----	230
The extent of the school system-----	231
Seminaries-----	231
Colleges and academies-----	231
Parochial schools-----	232
Orphan asylums-----	232
Grand totals-----	232
Special schools-----	232
The high-school movement-----	233
The Catholic Educational Association-----	236
Table 1.—Diocesan school boards and supervising officers-----	237
Table 2.—Enrollment in seminaries, colleges, and academies and in parochial schools in 1911 and 1912-----	239

CHAPTER VII.—RECENT MOVEMENTS IN NEGRO EDUCATION.

Public schools-----	243
The work of the Jeanes fund-----	246
State rural supervisors-----	248
Farm demonstration work-----	249
Teachers' associations-----	250
The negro organization society of Virginia-----	250
Denominational boards and home-missions council-----	250
Negro schools and self-help in education-----	251
Progress in negro education in the public schools-----	251
Value of property used by colored schools-----	252
Expenditures for negro public schools-----	252
Teachers' salaries and certificates-----	253
Secondary and higher schools-----	254
Self-help in education-----	254
Conference of rural industrial schools for colored people in the South-----	255

CHAPTER VIII.—PROGRESS OF THE MOVEMENT FOR THE BENEFIT OF THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD, IN THE YEAR 1912-----

257

CHAPTER IX.—A REVIEW OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN 1911-12.

The graduate school of architecture-----	264
Agricultural colleges-----	264
Instruction-----	264
Extension service-----	266

	Page.
Agriculture in high schools	267
Cooperation among farmers	272
The grange	273
Agricultural fairs	274
The farmers' institutes	275
Women's clubs	275
"Chautauquas"	275
Agricultural press	276
State legislation	276
Indiana commission on industrial education	277

CHAPTER X.—PROGRESS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

I. Progress in legislation	281
Legislation for 1912	281
Wisconsin	281
Massachusetts	281
The Page and Lever bills	282
Vocational legislation, 1913	282
Indiana	282
Pennsylvania	284
New Jersey	284
Connecticut	284
New York	285
Illinois	286
Washington	286
Massachusetts	286
Rhode Island	286
II. Progress in public opinion	287
III. Progress in the recognition of principles and policies	290
Teachers for boys' work	294
IV. Progress in localities	295
State commissions and studies	295
Studies and investigations	295
Schemes for the training of teachers	295
Massachusetts	296
Wisconsin	296
New York	296
General	297

CHAPTER XI.—TYPICAL HEALTH-TEACHING AGENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Various national organizations and societies engaged in general health work	302
United States Public Health Service	302
American Public Health Association	302
American Association for Labor Legislation	303
American Association for the Advancement of Science	304
American Civic Association	304
National Conference of Charities and Correction	305
National Woman's Christian Temperance Union	306
National Congress of Mothers	306
National Civic Federation on Dangerous and Unhealthful Industries	306
American Institute of Child Life	307
American Society for the Study of Alcohol and Other Narcotics	308
National Housing Association	308
Playground and Recreation Association of America	309
Anticigarette League of America, Eastern Division	309
American Red Cross	309
Committee of the American Medical Association for public-health education among women, and its affiliated organizations	310
State boards of health	314
Municipal health associations, commissions, boards, etc.	315
New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor	316
Caroline Rest and School for Mothers	317
Rochester Public Health Association	317
Visiting Nurse Association of Detroit	318

	Page.
Municipal health associations, commissions, boards, etc.—Continued.	318
Visiting Nurse Society of Philadelphia	318
Providence Nursing Association	318
Milwaukee Child Welfare Commission	318
Division of child hygiene of the department of health of the city of New York	319
South End House Women's Residence of Boston	320
Women's Municipal League of Boston	320
Infant Welfare Society of Chicago	321
Infant Welfare Association of New Haven, Conn.	322
New York Diet Kitchen Association	322
Infant welfare department of Duluth Consistory, Scottish Rite Masons	323
Boston Chamber of Commerce	323
Atlanta Chamber of Commerce	324
Social League of Middletown, Conn.	324
Bureau of industries and immigration of the department of labor of the State of New York	325
Antituberculosis leagues, associations, and organizations	325
Cincinnati antituberculosis league	325
Boston association for the relief and control of tuberculosis	325
Chicago Tuberculosis Institute	326
St. Louis society for the relief and prevention of tuberculosis	327
San Francisco association for the study and prevention of tuberculosis	327
Texas antituberculosis association	328
Antituberculosis committee of 100, of Winston-Salem, N. C.	328
Massachusetts hospital for consumptives	329
California association for the study and prevention of tuberculosis	329
Antituberculosis league of Cleveland, Ohio	331
State charities aid association of New York	332
Societies for prevention of blindness	334
Dental hygiene societies	336
Organizations for social purity and the teaching of sex hygiene	337
American federation for sex hygiene	337
Seattle society of social and moral hygiene	339
Pennsylvania society for the prevention of social diseases	339
California social hygiene society	339
Social hygiene society of Portland, Oreg.	340
West Virginia society of social hygiene	340
Chicago society of social hygiene	340
Los Angeles society of social hygiene	341
World's purity federation	341
School of eugenics, of Boston	341
Maryland society of social hygiene	342
St. Louis society of social hygiene	342
Connecticut society of social hygiene	343
American vigilance association	343
State Board of Health of Indiana	343
Detroit society for sex hygiene	343
Spokane society for social and moral hygiene	344
Reed College	344
Religious organizations engaged in health teaching	344
Presbyterian board of home missions	344
Methodist federation for social service	344
Council of Jewish women	345
Sunday-school superintendents' union of Boston and vicinity	345
International committee of young men's christian associations	346
Young women's christian association	348
Home and school leagues and associations	348
Home and school league of Philadelphia	348
Boston home and school associations	349
Chicago school-extension committee	349
Societies devoted to the teaching of mental hygiene	350
National committee for mental hygiene	350
State charities aid association of New York	351
Health work of typical industrial concerns	352
Joint board of sanitary control in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry of Greater New York	353
Associations for securing clean milk supply	354

CONTENTS OF VOLUME I.

IX

	Page.
Special commissions, bureaus, etc., engaged in health teaching-----	355
Rockefeller sanitary commission for the eradication of hookworm disease-----	355
Bureau of municipal research-----	356
Brooklyn institute of arts and sciences-----	357
Health-education league-----	357
College work in hygiene-----	357
Negro organizations for health teaching-----	357

CHAPTER XII.—PURPOSES, METHODS, AND RESULTS OF THE PARENT-TEACHER COOPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS OF THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS.

Founders of the congress-----	359
Basis of organization-----	359
Conventions-----	359
Purposes of the congress-----	360
Departments-----	360
Effects on children-----	363
Material results-----	363
The principal's point of view-----	364
County superintendents-----	364
Initial work for organization-----	364
Working up interest-----	365
Parents must do the work-----	366
Calling the meetings-----	366
Inducements to attend-----	366
Suggested rules-----	367
Frequency of meetings-----	368
Subjects for discussion-----	368
Suggested programs-----	369
Evening meetings for fathers-----	370
An inspiration-----	371
What prominent educators think of the movement-----	371
Department of education in the congress-----	373
The twentieth century child-----	373

CHAPTER XIII.—REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION-----

375

CHAPTER XIV.—RECENT ASPECTS OF LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT.

Gifts and bequests to American libraries, 1912-----	379
Library buildings-----	380
Largest American libraries-----	380
Instruction in use of books and libraries in colleges and universities-----	380
Rural library extension-----	384
County extension-----	385
Township extension-----	388
Traveling libraries-----	389
Library service to foreigners-----	397
Association proceedings-----	403
American library association-----	403
American library institute-----	404
League of library commissions-----	404
Other important meetings-----	405
Library positions-----	405

CHAPTER XV.—OUTLYING POSSESSIONS AND DEPENDENT PEOPLES.

Report on education in Alaska-----	407
Method of administration-----	407
Medical work-----	408
Cooperation by public health service-----	408
The Hydaburg village-----	409
The eruption of Katmai Volcano-----	409
Juneau conference-----	410
Recommendations-----	410
List of persons in the Alaska school service (exclusive of teachers), 1911-12-----	411
Statistics of teachers, school attendance, and length of term-----	412

	Page.
The Alaska reindeer service	415
Statistics of the Alaska reindeer service	416
Indian education	420
In the beginning	420
Beginning of Governmental Indian education	421
First congressional appropriation for Indian education	422
Governmental education takes on new life	423
Kinds of Indian schools maintained by the Government	423
Other schools educating Indians	426
The schools of the Five Civilized Tribes	426
Need of schools among the Navajos and Papagos	426
Later progress of Indian education	426
Education in the Philippine Islands, 1910-1912	428
American teachers	429
Filipino teachers	431
Office organization	432
Revision of the courses of study	432
The Philippines and other tropical countries	434
Buildings and sites	434
Industrial instruction	435
School of household industries	437
Various insular schools	438
Athletics	439
Legislation enacted, 1910-11	440
Legislation, 1911-12	441
Educational statistics, Philippine Islands	441
Publications of the Philippine Bureau of Education	442
Hawaii	442
Porto Rico	444
Common schools	445
High schools	446
Agricultural instruction	447
Industrial work for boys	449
Sewing	450
Cooking	450
Musical instruction	450
Night schools	451
Teachers' conferences	451
School buildings	451
Statistics	452
Canal Zone	454
American Samoa	455
Guam	456

CHAPTER XVI.—EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN CANADA.

Introduction	459
Main features of the systems of public instruction	460
Current activities	463
Training in manual arts and agriculture	463
Commissions on industrial education	467
Higher education	468

CHAPTER XVII.—EDUCATION IN THE LATIN-AMERICAN STATES.

Introduction	471
Mexico	471
Central America	472
South American Republics	474
Argentina	475
Brazil	477
Bolivia	479
Chile	480
Paraguay	481
Peru	481
Uruguay	482
Venezuela	484

CONTENTS OF VOLUME I.

xi

CHAPTER XVIII.—GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

	Page.
England and Wales	487
System of public elementary schools	487
Current movements	488
School attendance	488
Teachers	489
Welfare work and medical inspection	491
Function of the board of education	492
State of medical inspection	493
Auxiliary agencies	494
Provision of meals	495
Extension of medical service to juvenile workers	496
Provision for vocational training	496
Agencies for rural uplift	498
Expanding scope of the State system	499
Scotland	500
Measures for prolonging school attendance	501
Supplementary classes	501
Continuation classes	503
Welfare work	505
Ireland	505
The rural uplift movement	507
Department of agriculture and technical instruction	508
Attendance at universities of Great Britain and Ireland at specified dates	510

CHAPTER XIX.—EDUCATION IN THE KINGDOMS OF NORTHERN EUROPE.

Scandinavian countries	511
Denmark	511
Danish rural schools	512
Sweden	515
Norway	515
Belgium	516
The Netherlands	519

CHAPTER XX.—EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENTS IN FRANCE AND SWITZERLAND.

France	521
Conspectus of the educational system	521
School attendance	522
Medical inspection	523
The teaching service	523
The Government <i>versus</i> teachers' syndicates	524
Measures in the interest of teachers	526
Need of continuation schools	526
Department of secondary education	528
The new program	528
Secondary education for girls	532
Higher education	533
Reorganization of medical studies	534
Public education in Switzerland	535
General survey	535
Statistical summary	536
Continuation schools	537
Expenditure for education	538

CHAPTER XXI.—EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

I. German school reform	539
II. The proposed Saxon school law	541
III. The religious question	546
IV. Continuation schools	548
V. Education for citizenship	554
VI. The teaching profession	556

CHAPTER XXII.—EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN EUROPE.

	Page.
Italy	559
Measures for extending primary instruction	560
Education of emigrants	561
Instruction in Arabic	563
Current legislation	564
Educational activities in Spain	564
Portugal	567
Greece	567
Chief current interests	568
Child-labor law	569
Turkey	569
System of public instruction	569
Schools and colleges in Constantinople	570
Missionary agencies	575
Educational status of the Balkan Nations	575
Bulgaria	576
Servia	576
Montenegro	577
Roumania	577

CHAPTER XXIII.—EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

Magnitude and complexity of the population	579
Controlling authorities	579
Primary-school law of 1864	580
Educational work of the third Duma	581
Agencies for rural uplift	583
Secondary and higher education	585
Technical schools	586
Appropriations for education in 1911 and 1912	587

CHAPTER XXIV.—CURRENT MOVEMENTS IN ASIA AND AFRICA.

Asia	589
Spread of modern influences	589
System of public instruction in Japan	589
Imperial ordinance respecting education in Chosen	593
India	594
System of education	594
The present outlook	595
Statistical summary	596
Evidences of the efficiency of the system of public instruction	598
The rural masses	599
Modern education in Africa	600
Algeria	600
Egypt	600
The coast regions	600
Union of South Africa	601
Education commission for Cape Colony	602
The colored people	604

CHAPTER XXV.—EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND.

Australia	605
The systems of public education	605
Current activities	607
New South Wales	608
Victoria	610
Western Australia	611
New Zealand educational system	613
Educational commission	614

CONTENTS OF VOLUME I.

XIII

CHAPTER XXVI.—EVENTS OF INTERNATIONAL INTEREST.

	Page.
International foundations -----	617
Amerika-institut-----	617
Carnegie endowment for international peace-----	618
Continuation committee, world missionary conference-----	620
University events -----	620
Congress of the universities of the British Empire-----	620
Anniversary of the University of Athens-----	623
University at Frankfort on the Main-----	624
Hamburg University-----	624
New universities in Hungary-----	624
University of Hongkong-----	625
New university for India-----	625
South African university-----	625
University of Mexico-----	626
Astronomers at Brazil-----	627
International celebrations and congresses -----	627
Musical festival at Paris-----	627
Fifteenth modern language conference-----	628
Congresses at London-----	628
Third international congress of American students-----	629
First international congress on eugenics-----	629
Convention of American teachers at Berlin-----	630
Fourth international congress for drawing and art instruction-----	630
Fifth international congress of mathematicians-----	630
Fourth international congress of the history of religions-----	631
Second international moral education congress-----	632
Eighth international congress of applied chemistry-----	633
Fifth international congress of chambers of commerce and commercial and industrial associations-----	633
Fifteenth international congress of hygiene and demography-----	633
Tenth international congress for the study of the history of art-----	634
Additional international congresses-----	634
International educational and industrial exhibition-----	635
Index -----	637

REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, April 29, 1913.

SIR: Because of the lack of means for collecting statistics promptly, it is still necessary for the Bureau of Education to publish in its annual report statistics for State school systems for one year back of the statistics pertaining to city schools, colleges, and other schools of higher and special learning. Therefore the Report of the Commissioner for 1912 gives figures of State school systems for the year ended June 30, 1911. An effort made last year to remedy this condition was not successful, but it is hoped conditions may be more favorable for another effort next year.

Within the year ended June 30, 1911, the estimated increase in the number of children of school age in the United States was 505,614, while the reported increase in enrollment in the public schools was only 221,266, and the increase in the average daily attendance only 44,673. This apparent falling off in enrollment and daily attendance, as compared with the estimated increase in the number of children of school age, is no doubt due to inaccurate and incomplete returns. The figures for 1911 are probably more nearly correct than those for 1910. There is a constant improvement in the several States in methods of collecting and compiling the statistics on which this bureau must depend for the material for its summaries. In one State last year the reported enrollment and attendance were reduced by several thousands by more careful elimination of duplicate enrollments.

The total number of teachers in the public elementary and high schools increased 10,396. This total increase was more than equaled by the increase in the number of female teachers. Of the teachers in the public elementary and high schools, 79.5 per cent were women and 20.5 per cent were men.

There was an apparent decrease in the average length of school term from 157.5 days to 156.8 days. There was also an apparent decrease in the average salaries of teachers. Probably this apparent decrease in salaries was real. If so, it can be accounted for by the fact that, while the increase in total expenditure was only \$20,576,595, the increase in the total value of property reported was \$121,688,218. Many new schoolhouses were built in city and country, and the new houses are much better and more costly than the older ones. Only

about 60 per cent of the total expenditures of school funds is for salaries of teachers.

For the year ended June 30, 1912, the number of public and private high schools reporting was 1,058 more than the number reported for the previous year; an increase of 8.6 per cent. The number of high-school pupils reported was 131,501 more than for the previous year; an increase of 11.8 per cent. The number of high-school graduates was 19,214 more than for the previous year; an increase of 14 per cent. This increase in attendance in the high schools and in the number of graduates is very gratifying, and is sufficient answer to the statement frequently made that fewer children enter the high schools than formerly, and that the proportion of those who graduate is constantly decreasing. On the contrary, the growth of the high schools, and especially of the public high schools, in the last decade is probably the most notable thing in our school system. Better economic conditions and the recognition of the need for more education than can be acquired in the elementary schools by children who have not yet reached the period of adolescence both contribute to this. Nearly one-fourth of the children of this generation in the United States, and something more than one-fourth of the native-born white children, now get some education in high schools. The number of high-school teachers increased something more than 12 per cent. Of the total number of high-school teachers, 44 per cent were men, 56 per cent women.

Not all institutions calling themselves colleges or universities are listed as such in this report. Many of them do little or no work above the high-school grade; some do little above the grade of the elementary school. In the 596 colleges listed for the year ended June 30, 1912, there were 198,453 undergraduate and graduate students, and 63,815 in the preparatory classes. This is an increase of 8 per cent in the number of undergraduate and graduate students, and of 6 per cent in the number of students in preparatory classes. Probably the increase in the number of students in preparatory classes in colleges is due to the raising of standards and of entrance requirements; but it is hard to understand why, with the rapid increase in the number of high schools, colleges should much longer burden themselves with large numbers of immature students doing work that could be done much better and at much less expense in the high schools. The number of baccalaureate degrees conferred was 22,354, and the number of graduate degrees, 5,226; a decrease of 1 per cent in baccalaureate degrees, and an increase of 10 per cent in graduate degrees. Of the baccalaureate degrees, 58 per cent were conferred on men, 42 per cent on women. Of the graduate degrees, 83.4 per cent were conferred on men, 16.6 per cent on women. The number of professors and instructors in colleges and universities

increased 6.3 per cent. Of the total number of professors and instructors, 80.2 per cent were men, 19.8 women. The value of property owned by universities and colleges increased from something more than 367 million dollars to a little more than 409 million dollars. Endowment funds increased from nearly 300 millions to more than 350 millions, and the total of working incomes from 81 millions to 90 millions. The figures in this paragraph do not include departments of theology, law, medicine, etc. These are included with the professional schools in the next paragraph.

The number of professional schools reporting, including professional schools and departments in universities and colleges, was 564, a decrease of 20. This decrease is due to the consolidation of small professional schools, the absorption of small schools by larger schools, and the tendency of colleges and universities to discontinue or unload the professional schools and departments which they find burdensome and which they are unable to maintain adequately. All this is in response to the demand which the public is beginning to make for better professional preparation. This demand applies at present more to medicine than to other professions, but it will soon extend to them all. It is not so important that we have a large number of professional schools as it is that those we do have shall be adequately supported and do genuine work. We are beginning to look with suspicion on colleges which, with very small incomes, attempt to support large numbers of professional schools or departments; and professional schools established and maintained for personal profit do not flourish as they once did. Though the number of professional schools was less than for the year before, there was an increase of 1.3 per cent in the number of students reported, an increase of 5.3 per cent in the number of graduates, and an increase of 1.8 in the number of professors and instructors. Substantial increase is shown in value of property, endowment funds, and working incomes.

The number of normal schools reporting decreased from 288 to 277. This decrease was probably due to the disappearance of some private normal schools and a change in the classification of others. Within the last few years there has been a large increase in the number of county normal schools and of normal classes in high schools, but these are not listed in this report. The reports show an increase of 7 per cent in the number of normal school pupils enrolled, and of 10 per cent in the number of graduates; an increase of 3.3 per cent in the number of teachers, and an increase of 5.3 per cent in the total of incomes. Of the total number of normal school students, 23.7 per cent were men, 76.3 per cent women. Of the graduates, 14 per cent were men, 86 per cent women. The total number of graduates, 18,278, was large enough to supply less than 25 per cent of the demand for new teachers in the elementary schools of the country.

If all these graduates had begun teaching in the fall after their graduation, there would still have been 60,000 vacancies or more to be filled by young teachers who had not had the education and professional training represented by graduation from a normal school. This lack of preparation of teachers is one of the greatest evils of our school systems. In no other country that pretends to provide an opportunity for universal education is the condition in this respect so bad as in the United States. This condition must be remedied, or the schools must continue to be much less efficient than they should be. The State or country that assumes the responsibility of educating its children at public expense, and in schools under public control, must assume the corresponding responsibility of preparing at public expense a sufficient number of teachers, and must refuse to license persons not having sufficient native ability, education, and training to use to good advantage the time and money of the children. It is unwise and unjust to give to one school supported by the taxes of the people and attended by children that they may be prepared for life, for making a living, and for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, a well-educated and well-trained teacher, and to give at the same time to another school supported by the taxes of the people and attended by children that they may be prepared for life, for making a living, and for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, a teacher without education, training, or experience. We must have more normal schools of a high grade, and they must be content to confine their efforts more to the high task of giving adequate preparation to a sufficient number of young men and women to supply teachers for the elementary schools. In most States, at least, the duty of preparing teachers for the high schools should be left to schools or departments of education in colleges and universities.

For the year ended June 30, 1912, 569 summer schools reported to this office, an increase of 90 over the year before. Since the year 1911 was the first year in which statistics for summer schools were collected, it is quite certain that the increase in the number reporting does not indicate that there was a like increase in the actual number of such schools. The summer schools have come to be a large part of our educational equipment, and an important agency for the further preparation of teachers in the elementary and secondary schools. A very large majority of their students are teachers who have taught one or more years; some of them many years. It is worthy of note that of the 142,217 students reported, 32.8 per cent were men, a larger proportion of men than is found among the students of the normal schools or among the teachers in service.

The average annual term of the schools in most of the States, and in the country as a whole, is still too short. Less than 157 days for all the schools, it varies from little more than 100 days in several States to a maximum of 193 days in Rhode Island. The average

length of term in the rural schools is still shorter, being less than 140 days for the country as a whole, and less than 100 days in some of the States. This is much less than in many other countries. In most countries of western Europe both city and country children have 200 days or more of schooling in the year. In Australia the schools of city and country alike are in session 45 weeks, something more than 210 days after all holidays are counted out. In Porto Rico the schools are in session 9 months—185 days, not counting holidays. The same is true of the rural schools of the Philippine Islands. The average number of days in which children of school age attended school was, in 1911, for the whole country, only 81.1. This varied from 42.5 days in South Carolina, 42.6 days in New Mexico, and 45.8 days in Louisiana to 105.8 days in Iowa, 106.4 days in Massachusetts, 107.4 days in Utah, and 120.4 days in the District of Columbia. At this rate the average number of days of schooling for each child in the 13 years included in the school age varies from 552.5 days in South Carolina, 553.8 days in New Mexico, and 595.4 days in Louisiana to 1,375.4 days in Iowa, 1,383.2 days in Massachusetts, 1,396.2 days in Utah, and 1,565.2 days in the District of Columbia; the average for the country at large being 1,054.3 days, or 5.27 years of 200 days each. Of course there are many schools in each State with an annual term below the average, and in each State there are many children who attend much less than the average for all children of that State, but the average even in the best States is far too low. It is not sufficient to enable the children to obtain the instruction and training necessary to fit them for life in an industrial, political, social, and religious democracy.

Surely an annual school term of 180 days, and an average attendance of 90 per cent of this time by all the children between the ages of 6 and 16, a total of 1,620 days, can not be considered more than is necessary to prepare children for life and citizenship. The following tables show, on the one side, the average number of days the schools were open in each of the States in 1910-11, and the average number of days of schooling each child will get in each of the States at the rate of attendance for that year; and, on the other side, the number of days to be added in each State to make an average term of 180 days, and the necessary increase in attendance to make an average of 1,620 days for each child.

In the report for the year ended June 30, 1911, I called attention to the fact that there were, according to the Federal Census of 1910, more than five and one-half millions of people in the United States over 10 years of age unable to read and write. At the time that report was written separate statistics on illiteracy of children from 10 to 20 years old were not available. The figures now available show that, with an increase of nearly 3,000,000 in the population included within these ages between the census years 1900 and 1910,

Table showing the average length of school term in days in each of the several States in 1910-11, and the number of days that must be added to make an average term of 180 days.

92.8	SOUTH CAROLINA.	87.2
104.1	NORTH CAROLINA.	75.9
113.9	ARKANSAS.	66.1
115.0	NEW MEXICO.	65.0
115.2	ALABAMA.	64.8
116.2	FLORIDA.	63.8
120.0	MISSISSIPPI.	60.0
130.0	OKLAHOMA.	50.0
131.5	VIRGINIA.	48.5
131.8	KENTUCKY.	48.2
133.0	TENNESSEE.	47.0
135.0	WEST VIRGINIA.	45.0
135.1	TEXAS.	44.9
135.2	LOUISIANA.	44.8
135.5	ARIZONA.	44.5
138.0	OREGON.	42.0
140.0	IDAHO.	40.0
140.9	WYOMING.	39.1
145.3	NEVADA.	34.7
147.0	INDIANA.	33.0
151.0	NORTH DAKOTA.	29.0
151.4	GEORGIA.	28.6
152.0	SOUTH DAKOTA.	28.0
155.4	MISSOURI.	24.6
156.0	COLORADO.	24.0
156.0	KANSAS.	24.0
156.9	MONTANA.	23.1
159.0	UTAH.	21.0
160.0	VERMONT.	20.0
161.3	MINNESOTA.	18.7
163.8	MAINE.	16.2
165.5	OHIO.	14.5
168.5	NEW HAMPSHIRE.	11.5
168.6	NEBRASKA.	11.4
170.0	MICHIGAN.	10.0
170.4	PENNSYLVANIA.	9.6
171.0	ILLINOIS.	9.0
172.0	IOWA.	8.0
172.3	WASHINGTON.	7.7
172.5	DELAWARE.	7.5
173.6	CALIFORNIA.	6.4
179.6	WISCONSIN.	0.4
180.5	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.	
183.0	NEW JERSEY.	
184.9	CONNECTICUT.	
185.0	MARYLAND.	
185.0	MASSACHUSETTS.	
186.9	NEW YORK.	
194.0	RHODE ISLAND.	

Table showing the average number of days of schooling for each child in the several States on the basis of attendance for 1910-11, and the number of days of increase necessary to give an average of 1,620 days, or an average attendance of 90 per cent of 180 days each year by each child between the ages of 6 and 16.

553	SOUTH CAROLINA.	1067
554	NEW MEXICO.	1066
585	ALABAMA.	1035
595	LOUISIANA.	1025
647	NORTH CAROLINA.	973
668	ARIZONA.	952
686	MISSISSIPPI.	934
697	KENTUCKY.	923
697	FLORIDA.	923
710	VIRGINIA.	910
750	ARKANSAS.	870
764	TEXAS.	856
813	OKLAHOMA.	807
818	GEORGIA.	802
912	WEST VIRGINIA.	708
941	TENNESSEE.	679
954	NEVADA.	666
978	SOUTH DAKOTA.	642
993	DELAWARE.	627
1,015	MARYLAND.	605
1,042	NORTH DAKOTA.	578
1,087	MONTANA.	533
1,108	WYOMING.	512
1,109	NEW HAMPSHIRE.	511
1,132	MISSOURI.	488
1,135	IDAHO.	485
1,158	PENNSYLVANIA.	462
1,177	INDIANA.	443
1,187	WISCONSIN.	433
1,188	OREGON.	432
1,191	MINNESOTA.	429
1,217	OHIO.	403
1,221	RHODE ISLAND.	399
1,223	COLORADO.	397
1,234	ILLINOIS.	386
1,275	NEW JERSEY.	345
1,281	MICHIGAN.	339
1,283	NEW YORK.	337
1,313	KANSAS.	307
1,316	NEBRASKA.	304
1,338	VERMONT.	282
1,340	MAINE.	280
1,356	WASHINGTON.	264
1,360	CONNECTICUT.	260
1,375	IOWA.	245
1,377	CALIFORNIA.	243
1,383	MASSACHUSETTS.	237
1,396	UTAH.	224
1,565	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.	55

there was a decrease of more than 350,000 in the number of illiterates. The per cent of illiterates in this class of the population was 7.6 in 1900 and 4.7 in 1910. These figures are so important, as showing the results of the constant war against illiteracy, that they are given here for all of the States. For the Southern States they are given for white and colored separately. It will be seen that the reduction of illiteracy among both white and colored children in the Southern States is remarkable and gratifying. The comparatively small reduction in some of the North Atlantic States is due to the large influx of foreigners from countries in eastern and southern Europe, in which the per cent of illiteracy is very large. A finer analysis of the figures compiled by the Census Bureau shows that the per cent of illiterates in this class of the population is three times as large in rural districts as in the cities and towns. It also shows that for both white and colored the illiteracy is about 50 per cent greater for boys than for girls, and that the lowest per cent of illiteracy is found among the native-born children of foreign-born parents. This last fact is very reassuring. The eagerness of the illiterate immigrant that his children shall obtain the education necessary to fit them for life in their new home means much for the prosperity of the country and for the safety of our democratic institutions.

Illiteracy of the population 10 to 20 years of age in 1900 and 1910.

States.	1910			1900		
	Total population 10 to 20 years of age.	Illiterate.		Total population 10 to 20 years of age.	Illiterate.	
		Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.
United States	20,025,365	946,152	4.7	17,167,817	1,299,543	7.6
North Atlantic Division	5,185,646	107,099	2.1	4,198,164	95,168	2.3
North Central Division.....	6,428,669	56,501	.9	5,940,636	75,430	1.3
South Atlantic Division.....	2,934,280	313,392	10.7	2,619,376	478,105	18.3
South Central Division.....	4,190,245	436,429	10.4	3,594,999	622,563	17.3
Western Division	1,286,525	32,731	2.5	814,642	28,277	3.5
North Atlantic Division:						
Maine.....	142,430	2,907	2.0	135,817	4,740	3.5
New Hampshire.....	82,078	1,511	1.8	75,431	2,914	3.9
Vermont.....	68,739	677	1.0	66,768	1,401	2.1
Massachusetts.....	646,530	12,133	1.9	521,049	11,370	2.2
Rhode Island.....	109,840	3,436	3.1	84,366	3,368	4.0
Connecticut.....	218,203	4,807	2.2	170,927	4,320	2.5
New York.....	1,816,525	38,100	2.1	1,423,042	30,595	2.1
New Jersey.....	516,585	12,604	2.4	376,198	8,625	2.3
Pennsylvania.....	1,584,716	30,924	2.0	1,344,566	27,835	2.1
North Central Division:						
Ohio.....	966,141	8,446	.9	902,531	7,832	.9
Indiana.....	567,313	3,481	.6	570,437	5,785	1.0
Illinois.....	1,183,061	12,936	1.1	1,046,145	12,811	1.2
Michigan.....	579,343	4,678	.8	526,216	6,402	1.2
Wisconsin.....	534,911	3,798	.7	479,533	5,317	1.1
Minnesota.....	473,555	3,356	.7	395,543	3,852	1.0
Iowa.....	492,970	2,189	.4	511,228	2,511	.5
Missouri.....	725,386	10,848	1.5	734,494	24,242	3.3
North Dakota.....	128,434	2,120	1.7	70,587	1,865	2.6
South Dakota.....	131,090	1,073	.8	95,116	1,155	1.2
Nebraska.....	272,366	1,482	.5	253,586	1,267	.5
Kansas.....	374,099	2,094	.6	355,220	2,391	.7

Illiteracy of the population 10 to 20 years of age in 1900 and 1910—Continued.

States.	1910				1900			
	Total population 10 to 20 years of age.	Illiterate.		Total population 10 to 20 years of age.	Illiterate.		Number.	Per cent.
		Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.		
South Atlantic Division:								
Delaware.....	42,751	1,223	2.9	40,196	2,261	5.6		
Maryland.....	282,223	9,056	3.2	270,281	15,343	5.7		
District of Columbia.....	59,179	613	1.0	53,560	1,424	2.7		
Virginia.....	494,292	46,831	9.5	464,143	74,780	16.1		
West Virginia.....	280,504	11,367	4.1	234,782	15,405	6.6		
North Carolina.....	552,986	59,271	10.7	490,462	105,004	21.4		
South Carolina.....	399,157	76,113	19.1	366,510	112,256	30.6		
Georgia.....	651,346	91,901	14.1	572,201	132,795	23.2		
Florida.....	171,842	17,017	9.9	127,241	18,837	14.8		
South Central Division:								
Kentucky.....	539,434	36,156	6.7	524,768	49,874	9.5		
Tennessee.....	526,103	42,274	8.0	515,676	75,458	14.6		
Alabama.....	526,505	86,437	16.4	476,528	133,584	28.0		
Mississippi.....	453,286	65,116	14.4	410,098	95,464	23.3		
Louisiana.....	403,303	100,293	24.9	346,412	117,654	34.0		
Texas.....	961,329	64,245	6.7	783,279	75,804	9.7		
Arkansas.....	386,269	29,954	7.8	341,954	51,460	15.0		
Oklahoma.....	394,016	11,954	3.0	196,284	23,265	11.9		
Western Division:								
Montana.....	66,793	1,505	2.3	41,117	1,177	2.9		
Wyoming.....	25,544	351	1.4	17,551	335	1.9		
Colorado.....	155,773	2,487	1.6	103,254	2,304	2.2		
New Mexico.....	73,201	9,514	13.0	42,911	9,518	22.2		
Arizona.....	39,717	7,146	18.0	24,869	6,243	25.1		
Utah.....	84,934	850	1.0	68,385	631	.9		
Nevada.....	11,656	718	6.2	7,777	734	9.4		
Idaho.....	68,337	532	.8	34,589	543	1.6		
Washington.....	214,535	1,659	.8	101,822	1,146	1.1		
Oregon.....	130,120	942	.7	89,291	631	.7		
California.....	415,915	7,027	1.7	283,076	5,015	1.8		

Illiteracy of the white and of the negro population 10 to 20 years of age, in the South in 1900 and 1910.

States.	1900						1910					
	White.			Negro.			White.			Negro.		
	Population 10 to 20.	Illiterates.		Population 10 to 20.	Illiterates.		Population 10 to 20.	Illiterates.		Population 10 to 20.	Illiterates.	
		Num- ber.	Per ct.									
South Atlantic Div.	1,621,893	147,035	9.1	995,531	330,331	33.2	1,869,885	95,141	5.1	1,061,995	217,644	20.4
South Central Div.	2,465,917	236,346	9.6	1,110,505	381,530	34.4	2,992,747	170,815	5.7	1,176,836	262,759	22.3
S. Atlantic Div.:												
Delaware.....	32,891	883	2.7	7,301	1,377	18.8	35,301	580	1.6	7,446	643	8.6
Maryland.....	212,897	4,880	2.3	57,360	10,456	18.2	229,589	3,281	1.4	52,592	5,708	11.0
District of Co- lumbia.....	34,865	141	.4	18,571	1,281	6.9	41,231	191	.5	17,894	417	2.3
Virginia.....	286,486	25,445	8.9	177,493	49,316	27.8	322,158	18,047	5.6	171,979	28,746	16.7
West Virginia.....	224,351	13,515	6.0	10,420	1,890	18.1	266,982	10,067	3.8	13,501	1,297	9.6
North Carolina.....	318,058	49,616	15.6	170,922	54,775	32.0	366,603	26,151	7.1	184,407	32,594	17.7
South Carolina.....	143,749	19,504	13.6	222,732	92,743	41.6	185,426	14,243	8.6	233,645	61,853	26.5
Georgia.....	297,957	28,431	9.5	274,225	104,360	38.1	341,870	18,239	5.3	309,444	73,656	24.0
Florida.....	70,639	4,610	6.5	56,507	14,133	25.0	100,725	4,342	4.3	71,087	12,670	17.8
S. Central Div.:												
Kentucky.....	453,495	37,356	8.2	71,232	12,505	17.6	478,438	29,905	6.3	60,921	6,218	10.2
Tennessee.....	387,748	42,366	10.9	127,903	33,081	25.9	407,227	27,210	6.0	118,814	17,988	15.1
Alabama.....	255,890	33,796	13.3	220,577	99,748	45.2	295,511	21,092	7.1	230,757	65,263	28.3
Mississippi.....	164,840	11,120	6.7	244,631	83,867	34.3	190,694	6,780	3.6	262,249	58,116	22.2
Louisiana.....	178,235	30,680	17.2	168,006	86,850	51.7	224,500	27,002	12.0	178,528	73,119	41.0
Texas.....	616,126	42,152	6.8	166,997	33,579	20.1	782,348	42,660	5.5	178,732	21,521	12.0
Arkansas.....	245,193	23,434	9.6	96,741	28,024	29.0	273,418	12,051	4.4	112,727	17,893	15.9
Oklahoma.....	164,390	15,442	9.4	14,418	3,876	26.8	340,611	7,055	2.1	34,108	2,641	7.7

The gradual reduction of illiteracy is shown very effectively by a comparison of the per cents of illiteracy in the population between different age periods in 1900 and 1910. They are more interesting than any baseball or football score, and more thrilling than the reports of the battles of a great war. These figures show that the illiteracy of the negro population, and of the whole population, from 10 to 15 years of age, is less than one-third the illiteracy of this class of the population 65 years of age and over, and that the illiteracy of the white population from 10 to 15 years of age is less than one-fifth the illiteracy of this class of the population 65 years of age and over. The schools of 40 years ago are responsible for the condition of the population over 65 years old. The schools of the last decade are responsible for the condition of the population between the ages of 10 and 15 years.

Percentage of illiteracy in different age groups.

	65 years and over.	45-65.	35-45.	25-35.	20-25.	15-20.	10-15.
Total.....	14.5	10.7	8.1	7.3	6.9	4.9	4.1
White.....	9.4	6.7	5.4	5.2	4.6	2.8	1.8
Colored.....	74.5	52.7	27.7	24.4	23.9	20.3	18.9

Again, the effectiveness of the schools in reducing illiteracy is shown by the figures for illiteracy in the total population in the five census years from 1870 to 1910, inclusive:

Percentage of illiteracy in certain census years.

Years.	In total population.	Among native-born whites.	Among foreign-born whites.	Among negroes.
1870.....	20.0	10.8	14.4	79.9
1880.....	17.0	8.7	12.0	70.0
1890.....	13.3	6.2	13.1	56.8
1900.....	10.7	4.6	12.9	44.5
1910.....	7.7	3.0	12.8	30.5

For foreign-born whites, despite the large influx from countries in which more than half the people are illiterate, the per cent of illiterates has decreased.

Without the public schools the illiteracy of foreign-born whites would have very rapidly increased and their children would have been almost totally illiterate. For negroes, despite their rapid natural increase and the fact that they belong to a race almost totally illiterate through all the centuries of the past, the illiteracy has rapidly decreased.

It is easily understood that these figures do not show fully the effect of the public schools. The decrease in per cent in illiteracy depends on two factors. The education of children of school age and the dying off of illiterate adults. Despite all the crudities and all the difficulties attendant on the task unprecedented for magnitude, method, and purpose, the public schools have probably accomplished more for the good of humanity within the 40 years than has ever been accomplished by any other agency in a like number of years.

A careful study of the several chapters of this report will show that there was much activity in the field of education in all parts of this country and throughout the world, and that some real progress was made within the year. The field of education has become so large, the work so differentiated, and the problems so complex that it is much more difficult than it once was to bring together in one report any complete account of progress for a definite period. No attempt has been made to include in this report a survey of progress in all parts of the field, nor to discuss more than a few of the most important agencies.

Within the year the public schools were criticized freely in the public press, at public meetings, and elsewhere. Much of this criticism was intelligent and constructive. Some of it was unintelligent, unsympathetic, and destructive. Some of it was very superficial, and some only of the irritating, gadfly type. Like all other public institutions, the public schools are subject to the freest possible criticism, and any criticism however unintelligent and unsympathetic, if it only be free, must result in final good. The criticism which began several years ago, and seemed to reach its climax within the year for which the report is made, led to a general investigation of organization, methods, and results. Some of these investigations were conducted by officers and teachers in the schools investigated; some by parents and citizens in the towns and cities; others by commissions of experts selected for this purpose. The findings have been discussed freely in the press, and debated in the meetings of educational associations and elsewhere. It is interesting and instructive to note that, within the current year, there has been a rapid cessation of criticism, a restoration of confidence in the schools, and a larger amount of constructive discussion in the press and at public meetings.

As noted in other chapters of this report, there has been a large extension of vocational education and a more persistent effort to adapt the work of the schools to the needs of modern life, both in urban and rural communities. Progress has also been made in the coordination of schools of different kinds and grades. In several States, efforts more or less successful have been made to coordinate the institutions of higher learning, so as to eliminate waste through overlapping and unnecessary rivalry. A large number of colleges

have increased and made more definite their requirements for admission and for graduation. The sentiment for the establishment of junior colleges which will not grant degrees, and in which only two years of college work will be given, seems to be growing. More or less successful attempts have been made in different parts of the country for a better adjustment of the work of the colleges and high schools, so that the colleges may leave to the high schools their legitimate work and may use their funds wholly for college work. The Bureau of Education has had some opportunity to assist in this. That education, however differentiated and complex, is one thing, not many, seems to be better understood than it has been for many years. This is probably the most important symptom of all.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON, *Commissioner.*

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

CHAPTER I.

SURVEY OF EDUCATION DURING 1911-12.

By W. CABSON RYAN, Jr.,

Editorial Division, Bureau of Education.

CONTENTS.

Introductory.

- I. Current criticisms of the public schools: The changing purpose of education; the uniformity protest; the high school and the standard; the school's wider activities; the problem of organization; "too much" or "too little" supervision? Criticisms of curriculum; the three R's argument; subjects out of touch with life; Latin and the public high school; rigidity of the curriculum; "practical" and "cultural" subjects; the quality of instruction; the teachers; inadequacy of the supply of teachers; contradictory criticisms of methods; examinations and home work; measuring the public schools by results; low attendance; elimination of the "average" pupil; inaccuracy and the public school; democracy and the public school.
 - II. Reconstructive programs: School inquiries; making known the school's needs; formulation of standards and programs; reorganizing the elementary and high schools; Prof. Hanus's formulation.
 - III. Vocational education: Present status; objections to present tendencies of the movement; vocational guidance.
 - IV. The Montessori method: Attitude of American school men; Montessori and Froebel; adaptability to American practice.
 - V. Teachers and the high cost of living: Measurement of the increased cost of living; cities investigated; persons dependent upon teachers for support; home ownership; property of teachers; savings of teachers during 1911; life insurance; residence and amount paid for board and room by unmarried teachers; average salaries and other sources of income of teachers; teachers' expenditures; teachers' salaries and salaries of other municipal employees.
 - VI. Academic celebrations: Inauguration of President Hibben; President Meiklejohn, of Amherst; other administrative changes; academic anniversaries—Mount Holyoke, etc.; New York State education building.
 - VII. A national university: Discussion by Presidents James, Van Hise, Baker, and Thompson at N. E. A. meeting, July, 1912.
 - VIII. Benefactions: Carnegie foundation for advancement of teaching; General education board; million-dollar endowments; other benefactions announced.
 - IX. International relations: New official arrangements; regular exchanges; other academic visitors; the Prussian exchange; various international visits; the cosmopolitan club movement in Germany; association for the international exchange of students; the Rhodes scholarships; Chinese students and the revolution.
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INTRODUCTORY.

The year has been distinctly one of advance. For the most part, it has been marked by substantial practical achievement, rather than by any signal development of educational theory. There is, on the one hand, the record of routine progress in education, whereby cer-

tain sections of the country are rapidly overtaking others that have had a temporary lead; the gradual elimination of illiteracy where it has persisted most stubbornly; pronounced improvement in the work of getting all the children into the schools; the extension of the amount of educational opportunities in terms of length of school year and period of compulsory schooling; broadening the provisions of State education to include higher education; the constant betterment in teaching standards; the slow but certain transformation of the rural schools to make them adequate for rural life; increased expenditures for suitable buildings and grounds; the steady rise in college and professional standards, together with a greater uniformity in requirements and results in higher institutions.

These are the fundamental lines of progress in routine efficiency. On the other hand, there has been relatively little new educational theory. Most of the new things are no longer new. Medical inspection and general health supervision; mental measurements; vocational training; vocational guidance; school gardening; social centers; provision for exceptional children; and the many projects for closer cooperation between school and home—it is no longer a question of the advisability of these things, but of their extension in practice from isolated localities to larger educational units.

In the present period of readjustment in public education, one of the most important results of recently developed theories has been to arouse lively discussion and criticism of existing school conditions as related to the new demands.

I. CURRENT CRITICISMS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Public education of the present time is subjected to searching criticism with respect to purpose, organization, administration, curriculum, teaching methods, and results. Particularly during the past year there has developed a literature of educational criticism that needs to be studied. Contrary to popular impression, this literature has been produced almost entirely by educators and not by laymen. School men themselves are likely to be the severest critics of the weaknesses of the schools, perhaps because they know what public education has accomplished and can accomplish, and are impatient that the schools do not progress uniformly in accordance with their ideals. Thus Francis G. Blair, State superintendent of public instruction of Illinois, says:

What we are doing in public education to-day is at least 25 years behind what we think we ought to be doing. . . . When we turn our faces to look upon educational things as they really are and see the little circumscribed school grounds, the ill-constructed school buildings, ill-lighted, ill-ventilated, ill-suited to the life and work of millions of children; when we see the narrow, constricted courses of study, the short terms of school; when we look into the

schoolrooms and see the work done in so many instances by immature, ill-prepared, incompetent teachers—when we see all this a chill of disappointment, amounting almost to discouragement, comes over us, and we break forth into the question: Why is it that this great instrument of public education is so unresponsive to the theory and the thought of those who know the most about what it should be? Why is it that this great wagon of the common school is not more closely hitched to the star of educational progress?

In the criticism that has come to a climax in the past year, there is much that is based on the best thought of our time; there is much that is the direct result of the discoveries of modern science; there is much that is backed by years of practical experience in the school-room and in the administrator's office; and there is naturally much that represents mere guesswork, misunderstanding, or even ignorance. Good and bad, significant and trivial, this mass of educational criticism is an indispensable guide to the progress of public education.

THE CHANGING PURPOSE OF EDUCATION.

It is apparent at a glance that much of the criticism of the public schools to-day is due to a marked change in the purpose of public education. Thus the charge of a curriculum "behind the times," and the demand for vocational subjects, represent no mere call for different school subjects as such, but a complete transformation in the idea of what the public schools should do. When public education was first introduced in this country it represented an extension of the educational facilities already at hand to wider circles of the population. It was no time to consider whether the type of education that had served to make cultured gentlemen of those who had wealth and leisure was equally adaptable to the work of educating "all the children of all the people." The early public-school men were concerned with the task of extending the benefits of education, not with changing it. They believed in it; they were themselves the product of it. They saw the vital need for enlightenment, and they knew of but one type of education to produce it. They used that type.

No one can criticize these men or their purpose; they did well a work the full significance of which we are only too prone to forget; but the conditions of American life have changed radically in the past hundred years, and the whole basis of educational purpose has shifted to meet changing needs. Most of the criticism of the year will be found to come, on the one hand, from those who feel that the schools are still teaching the children of all the people by a process that was never designed for that end; and on the other hand from those who fear that education has entered upon dangerous paths, wherein the older cherished heritage is neglected. Those who criticize the bookish curriculum of the public school, whether elementary or high school, are really striving for what they conceive to be the

changed purpose of public education: To reach all the children of all the people with the kind of training that will make them not merely intelligent in respect to things that are in books, but will equip them directly for the kind of life, economic and social, which they will lead when they leave school; while those who oppose the innovations do so because they do not concede this broader, though apparently more specialized, purpose. Thus the validity of much of the educational criticism of the year will be admitted or not according to the belief or nonbelief in a changed purpose for the schools.

THE UNIFORMITY PROTEST.

One criticism found prominently in the discussion of the year is directly attributable to this idea of changed purpose—that the schools attempt a uniformity that is undesirable; that they try to teach all the children the kind of things once designed for the few who intended to enter college. The uniformity charge is thus summed up by Dr. A. C. Perry, in his *Problems of the Elementary School*:

Into the same school, into the same classroom, we thrust those pupils to whom we wish to extend the opportunity of seeking a liberal education, and also those others, in the substantial majority, upon whom we are placing the duty of securing that minimum of instruction consistent with proper usefulness in a Republic. We place these two groups of pupils, with such divergent interests, in the same classroom, under the guidance of the same teacher, and put them through the same curriculum, and then wonder at the confessed failure of the public school to prepare great numbers of its pupils for life.

THE HIGH SCHOOL AND THE "STANDARD."

Growing out of the argument against uniformity is the protest against arbitrary standards in the high school, by which pupils are rejected if they do not meet the requirements in certain traditional subjects, Latin and algebra, for instance. If the high school, like the rest of the system, is for all the children, says the critic of this type, then it can not eliminate those who do not come up to algebra-Latin standards, but must meet their demands. In modern education it is the boy or girl, and not the subject, that is the determining basis of school method. William Hughes Mearns states the case against uniform standards in the high school as follows:

If the aim of the public high school is to turn out the largest percentage of perfect products, then every indolent, weak, ill-informed, or slow-witted youngster lowers the average and should be got rid of. Such should go into the junk heap as imperfect parts of machinery. Everyone sympathizes with such an aim in a medical school. There the greater the elimination of the unfit the greater will the community be served. The object of the college of medicine is not to assist some young person to get a better footing in life, but rather to discover and train the greatest medical efficiency. Dental schools,

law schools, engineering schools have small excuse for keeping half-equipped students; and particularly is it incumbent upon training schools for teachers to hold a high and inflexible standard * * *.

But the object of the public high school is not primarily to turn out an example of skill; its fundamental achievement is to bring young people a step or two nearer efficient manhood or womanhood, to insure for the next generation a healthier, better-thinking citizenship, to give youth a better training for his later daily work—in short, to make intelligent beings a little more intelligent * * *.

Some high schools are managed like a track team instead of a gymnasium class. A good track team consists of record breakers, and only the possible point winners are taken care of; a good gymnasium class consists of all sorts and conditions of physical aptitude and inaptitude, and the weak are prescribed for with even more care than the strong. The chap that can not jump 6 feet, or run 100 yards in 11 seconds, or hurl a shot so many meters is useless to a track team. Who would eliminate these fellows from the gymnasium hour or the period of organized play? The track-team high schools have nothing but dismissal for those who do not qualify according to the arbitrary standard.

Every mother has a standard of health for the family toward which she is daily and nightly striving; but she doesn't asphyxiate all members that do not measure up.¹

THE SCHOOL'S WIDER ACTIVITIES.

A frequent criticism from conservative sources is that the school is entering fields in which it does not belong. This appears to be a criticism based on the changed purpose of education, and in so far as it refers to the attempts to relate the schools more definitely to life it will be found true of the more progressive communities. The criticism is usually expressed with regard to the work of medical inspection, dental clinics, etc. In this respect it must be said that the school is really only in line with the evident trend of the times, which allows government to interfere to a greater extent than heretofore with freedom of the individual, when the larger demands of society make such interference desirable. It is doubtful if the schools have even gone so far in this particular as the spirit of the times would permit. The community is concerned with getting for its schools the best possible educational material, and is therefore beginning to insist upon the most thorough health supervision as a preliminary requirement of public education. For the same reason, the school in its wider social purpose is intensely interested in eugenics and euthenics, to the end that the children may begin their educational opportunities under as uniformly favorable conditions as possible. Those who resent the interference of government in the daily lives of the citizens will similarly resent the enlarged activity of the schools; no more and no less.

¹ "The high school and the standard." The Independent, Aug. 29, 1912, p. 482.

THE PROBLEM OF ORGANIZATION.

When it comes to the organization of our system of education, it may be said that educators are much more critical than outsiders. Among modern thinkers on school organization there is almost unanimous agreement that the present arrangement involves the waste of precious time and energy. Four criticisms of organization are: (1) That the period of elementary education is too long; (2) that the school year is too short; (3) that there is not the proper correlation between the elementary and the high school; (4) that classes are too large.

These criticisms are mainly historical, and the conditions in their most objectionable form survive only where public opinion is not strong enough to better them. The length of the time devoted to elementary education in the United States is longer by several years than that of other countries. The American system postpones secondary education past the proper period of boyhood or girlhood, with the result, on the one hand, that it accustoms children to an educational attitude they should have outgrown, and, on the other hand, that it shuts off many boys and girls from any work of secondary quality. This is a criticism repeatedly made by foreign observers of American schools. The shortness of the school term in the United States also amazes foreign observers, since in other countries, Germany, for instance, 10 months is the regular term. The problem of correlation between elementary and high school has passed from the stage of discussion to practical experimentation, and will accordingly be treated later. The size of classes is a general complaint, not confined to the United States, and is based on the feeling that the personal relation between teacher and pupil emphasized in modern education requires small classes.

“ TOO MUCH ” OR “ TOO LITTLE ” SUPERVISION ?

The question of supervision is one about which there is wide divergence of opinion. On the one hand we are met with the cry of too much supervision—“ we are supervised to death,” say some of the teachers in city schools. But the educators who know conditions, and foreign observers particularly, make the opposite criticism—that there is not supervision enough, particularly in the rural districts. They attribute this to the lack of centralized educational authority within the States. Localities that have the means provide machinery of supervision that sometimes exceeds what is desirable, while other communities without the means or inclination for well-developed school systems allow their schools to go without the supervision that would insure efficiency. Thus the question of too little or too

much supervision is a matter of locality. It may be true that supervision has sometimes gone so far in the city as to crush out the individuality of teachers, but the harm thus done can not compare with the damage done by the neglect of providing country schools with sufficient good management and supervision to make and keep them efficient.

CRITICISMS OF CURRICULUM—THE THREE R'S ARGUMENT.

The great bulk of the educational criticism is directed at the curriculum, and here the criticisms are most contradictory, because here is where the changing purpose of the school shows itself most clearly. On one side we hear that there are "too many subjects," "too many fads and frills," and hence neglect of the "three R's." This is a favorite charge with those who forget their own schooling or remember it with a glow of reminiscent sentiment. The critics who utter this sort of criticism seldom agree on exactly what are the "fads and frills," but they invariably hark back to a golden past when the so-called "fundamentals," reading, writing, and arithmetic, were taught in such a way as never to be forgotten.

Regardless of whether the enrichment of the curriculum has been wholly beneficial or not, the trouble with this retrospective three R's argument is, as Dr. Gregory says, "that it isn't so." Those who use it do not seem to realize that the question of quality of results by the old and the new schools is not a question of guesswork, but one that has been answered by plain comparisons of fact. The Springfield tests of a few years ago demonstrated that despite the enrichment of the curriculum the three R's are better taught to-day than they were 50 or 60 years ago. In view of the tendency to revive the three R's argument, it seems worth while to recall briefly what the Springfield tests were and what they revealed.

In 1890 there were discovered in the attic of the high-school building in Springfield, Mass., several old sets of examination questions that had been written in the fall of 1846. They consisted of printed questions in geography and arithmetic with answers written on the printed sheets, and written tests in spelling and penmanship. Two of these tests were later (1905) given to 245 ninth-grade pupils in the Springfield schools, and the results were carefully compared with the results of the tests of 1846. The following is the comparison:

	In 1846.	In 1905.
Spelling:		
Number of pupils who took tests -----	85	245
Average per cent correct -----	40.6	51.2
Arithmetic:		
Number of pupils who took tests -----	79	245
Average per cent correct -----	29.4	65.5

Of the class of 1846, only 16 of the 85 pupils stood as high in spelling as 70 per cent, the present "passing" mark in most schools. Three pupils had no words spelled correctly; nine had only one right; while 24, or more than one-fourth of the entire class, misspelled 17 or more words.

Comparisons of the geography and penmanship were even more conclusive evidence of the superiority of the pupils of 1905 over those of 1846.

In commenting upon the results of these tests, Dr. Gregory says:

The system of to-day is immeasurably ahead of the school system of the past. The growth has been steady. Whatever may be said against the "enrichment" of the course of study, its "frills and fads," the contention that the essentials, so called, have suffered in comparison with the past, falls flat. It does not follow that these essentials are taught as well as they should be yet. Perhaps they should have advanced more but for the "frills and fads" aforesaid. This is an open question. But no argument to that effect can be based on the superiority of the schools of the past. That is not an open question.

"SUBJECTS OUT OF TOUCH WITH LIFE."

In the present literature of criticism the tendency is not to attack the curriculum because of the newer things that have come in to enrich child life, but because of the persistence in it of subjects for which our age has no need, to the partial exclusion of subjects for which there is a genuine social demand. The general criticism all along the line is that the subjects are out of touch with life. The quarrel is not with arithmetic, for instance, as a school subject, but with what is likely to be taught as arithmetic—operations and methods the utility of which ceases when school is out. Dr. Leonard P. Ayres tells of having been called upon to examine the eighth-grade arithmetic textbooks in a New England city. From the book in use he made up an examination, which he persuaded a number of successful business and professional men to try. These were men earning from three to fifteen thousand dollars a year. None of them passed the examination. The highest mark recorded was 25 per cent. There was one problem in paper buying that seemed particularly troublesome. Two of the men who took the examination were directly engaged in publishing work, and purchased many tons of paper every year. Both failed on the paper question, and both gave the same excuse: "They had known how to do that when they left school, but having had no use for it since, they had forgotten it." They further explained that the terms used in the paper problem had not been in use in the trade for the last 50 years. There is an interesting epilogue to this story. Dr. Ayres gave the same arithmetic examination to his 15-year-old office girl, just from the eighth grade. She received 75 per cent on the examination.

LATIN AND THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL.

Thus the elementary school curriculum is subjected to the general criticism that the subjects are not in substance sufficiently in touch with the life of to-day, and that they are usually taught without sufficient "correlation" to each other. In the case of the high school this criticism goes further and condemns certain subjects as utterly out of place in any curriculum, at least as prescribed subjects. Latin is the chief object of attack in this connection. It is unnecessary to review the historical reasons which have led to the retention of Latin, except to note that here again we have the case of the changing purpose not fully recognized. For purely practical reasons, Latin was formerly the center about which instruction revolved. It was actually and not artificially the *sine qua non* of education. Few claim it is now. The high schools were originally not designed as institutions to train all the children of all the people for different tasks in life, but to furnish what was then considered educationally necessary to those who desired it. The State demand for education did not include the high school. As soon as public opinion began to consider it the function of the State to carry the child through the additional years of secondary schooling, not as a privilege for the individual, but as a State duty, then the obsolescence of Latin as a school subject became apparent. Whatever its cultural value for the individual, the current educational criticism considers Latin as distinctly unnecessary in a people's school, and a relatively strong group of critics would reject it entirely.

RIGIDITY OF THE CURRICULUM.

It is not merely that the subjects are in content not adapted to current demands, but they are not fluid enough; the curriculum tends to be too rigid. This is the real reason for the complaint about multiplicity of subjects. Many educators point out that if the new things that are desirable can be worked in with others, there can be no complaint of overcrowding. Thus school gardening need not usurp the place of arithmetic, but may be of real value in bringing arithmetic down to life. Other subjects can be so treated as to vitalize the so-called traditional subjects. As one writer expresses it:

You can not put a 10-year-old boy in a shop school, but you can bring him into close touch with the shop, the factory, the ship, the bank, with commerce, and with the whole world of business before you have changed his course of study at all. Why is not such a treatment of the child the logical preparation for industrial education? Why should we wait until a boy is 14 years old before we wake him up to the fact that he is living in a real world?

"PRACTICAL" AND "CULTURAL" SUBJECTS.

The problem of curriculum at the present time is often stated as the question of "practical or cultural." Theoretically, of course, all subjects are, or ought to be, both vocational and cultural. Every subject, however remotely connected with real life, is expected to help the pupil in his future, or it would not be in the curriculum. It is really not a question of excluding certain subjects because they are not vocational and adding others because they are; it is really the problem of emphasis—of using those subjects which will provide the greatest benefit to the individual combined with the greatest usefulness to society. It is not that educators fail to appreciate the "practical" as well as the cultural values of Latin, but they feel that there are other subjects more immediately necessary for the public welfare that are not only practical, but "cultural," in the best sense. In this connection it is felt by many critics of public education that what is needed is emphasis upon the "cultural" value of the so-called practical subjects. The merely book-taught boy has much to learn, from a purely cultural standpoint, of the boy who knows how to use his hands. What manual training was intended to do, and did not, something in the modern school must sooner or later accomplish—achieve genuine sentiment in behalf of all labor, whether of head or hands.

Judged by comparison with other nations, and by consideration of the needs of American life, it is only recording an acknowledged fact to say that the public-school curriculum in the United States is still considerably behind in its provision for vocational subjects. There is no question of this in the minds of careful critics of public education; but there is decided difference of opinion as to how far down in the grades the deliberate vocational training shall go and to what extent it shall affect the present school subjects. There is a very real danger, manifest in some quarters, to develop practical subjects at the expense of necessary preliminary training; but so far the need is decidedly for more, rather than less, vocational training in the public schools.

THE QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION—THE TEACHERS.

It is an interesting tribute to the teachers of the United States that there is so little general criticism of them on the part of the public. In this respect the public is more generous toward the profession than are many of its own members. Thus Prof. Münsterburg says:

It is the greatest defect of the American school life that too many teachers are standing before their pupils with a knowledge which has been crammed the night before and lacks a background of serious, thorough study. * * * The teacher must be primarily a person of broad general-education.¹

¹ *Vocation and Learning*, 1912.

INADEQUACY OF THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

The usual criticism is rather of the inadequacy of the supply of teachers than of the inefficiency of the individuals, though of course there is a direct relation between the two. The teaching standard is unquestionably lower in many parts of the United States than in certain other countries, for a number of reasons that need not be entered into here. It is seldom recognized how inadequate the supply of teachers for American schools really is. There were last year about 25,000 graduates of teacher-training courses in colleges, normal schools, and high schools in the United States. It is found by the Bureau of Education that the average length of employment is less than five years. With a total teaching force of about 450,000, this means that not more than 1 in 5 of the teachers actually employed is professionally trained, even on a minimum basis. In one Western State, by no means the lowest in educational facilities, only about one-half the teachers in the schools have even a high-school education, and there are many parts of the United States where the average education of the teachers is not above seventh grade.

In discussing the inadequacy of teacher training in the United States it must always be borne in mind that for various historical reasons the sense of public responsibility in the matter of education has developed unequally in different sections of the country. Standards of the teaching profession are much higher in some States than in others, and in most States the cities are far ahead of the country districts in adequate salaries and other conditions requisite for an efficient teaching force. It is simply that the State, in its eagerness to allow the maximum of local self-government, has been reluctant to insist upon education as a State function. The first step in educational progress is recognition by the State of its direct school obligations; once these are recognized in the form of ample financial support where such has hitherto been withheld, the public-school system of a particular section will improve sufficiently to make the national showing for education more nearly what it should be.

CONTRADICTORY CRITICISMS OF METHODS.

A number of miscellaneous criticisms are advanced in respect to the quality of instruction, many of them contradictory. We hear on one hand that "methods are machinelike," or they are "inelastic," while on the other hand they are held to be slipshod. This, like the question of supervision and of school efficiency generally, is mainly a matter of geography. Both extremes will be found, but at the present stage of education the net results of excessive method are infinitesimal compared to the results of the lack of it.

In the same way we hear on one side that methods are "too easy," and on the other that they are "too hard." The graduates of the schools of a generation or two ago are apt to complain that the pupils of to-day have too easy and pleasant a time; they are almost unanimous in declaring that "we had to *work* when we went to school." Discounting, as with the three R's argument, the element of fond reminiscence involved in this type of criticism, it is nevertheless true that the methods of to-day are somewhat less harsh and unbending than those of the past. Any teacher or parent who yearns to return to the methods and discipline of our forefathers is specifically referred to first-hand accounts of early nineteenth century schools in New York or Philadelphia. The delver into the past will almost be willing to believe that childhood is a modern discovery. The charge that the methods of to-day are too hard has, however, occasionally been justified in certain instances, where a craze for efficiency on the part of the school, coupled with the personal ambitions of a parent, sometimes lead to the imposition of tasks beyond the child's physical endurance.

EXAMINATIONS AND HOME WORK.

Two other criticisms are put forward so often that they should be mentioned here; they deal with examinations and home work. Making due allowance for the sentimentality that often enters into a discussion of these two subjects, it should be said that there is considerable educational authority against the persistence of the old-fashioned examination, especially in so far as it is designed to test memory only. There is also a marked tendency to move away from the strict adherence to written examinations as the final test of school work. This tendency has worked recently particularly in aid of the problem of the articulation of high school and college. For some time many American colleges, especially in the West, have been accepting accredited high-school graduates without examination. Two years ago Harvard took a step which, while retaining the examination principle, recognized largely the previous work of the student. During the current year Yale and Princeton have also formulated plans with the same end in view—that of assigning some more satisfactory standard of measurement than a mere examination on formal subjects. In the public-school system this tendency shows itself in the gradual elimination of the examination bar between the highest elementary grade and the high school. As long as the high school was merely a special privilege to a favored few it was felt that some sort of admission test was necessary, but with the extension of the high school into becoming an integral part of the State-provided education of every child, whatever justification there was for discrimination is considered to have vanished.

With regard to "home work," considerable difference of opinion still exists among American schoolmen. Home work for young children is rightly censured on the ground of health, and there is some disposition in the current criticism of the year to carry the same argument into the high school—that home study too often means work at night under unhygienic conditions or sacrifice of daylight hours that should be spent in the open air. So far as the high school is concerned, this opinion does not yet find very general acceptance.

MEASURING THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS BY RESULTS.

An institution is ultimately measured by its results, or what are taken to be its results, and the American public school has always had more or less criticism based on this principle. The present year has been no exception. Although measurement of results in education is obviously a complicated problem, one or two things can be very definitely measured with the means at hand, pending the evolution of scientific standards. Thus we can measure the extent to which educational opportunities are availed of, and within certain limitations we can infer from this the relative success of systems of public education.

LOW ATTENDANCE.

Low attendance records are a measure both of the efficiency of the school system and of the school methods. An efficient school system compels the child to go to school at least until a certain age determined by the State. When it is necessary to report that six States still have no compulsory attendance laws and a number of others have laws which apply only partially, the school system of a large part of our Nation is at once condemned, not for its efficiency so far as it exists, but for its efficiency as measured by the very important standard of what the State is able to require.

To some extent, however, low attendance is also a criticism of educational methods. The pupils are likely to find a way to come to school if convinced of the vital nature of the instruction offered them. One of the most severe indictments of the too-academic character of public-school education is the prejudice that it has engendered in the minds of those who saw no relation between school and life. It is difficult to estimate how much of the unwillingness of legislators to appropriate money for education has been due to the feeling that the instruction for which they were asked to pay was somehow unrelated to the life their children were going to lead.

ELIMINATION OF THE "AVERAGE" PUPIL.

The premature dropping out of pupils from school has received increased attention during the year as an index of educational progress, or lack of progress. The modern demand for vocationalizing the

curriculum owes its force mainly to the proved fact that a larger proportion of pupils drop out of school than can possibly be accounted for on the ground of economic pressure. The average boy leaves school because study of the bookish sort has ceased to make any appeal to him. The current criticism tends to regard this average boy as the real problem of public education. It views his elimination as a distinct social loss, and seeks to devise ways and means to give him more than he has, not merely for his individual benefit, but for the larger benefit of society.

INACCURACY AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

So much for results that can be measured in externals. There is another set of criticisms of results that can not be so readily measured, though science is rapidly learning how. Measuring intelligence has been indulged in impressionistically without much regard for the scientific possibilities. Notwithstanding the remarkable advances of the science of mental measurements, it is far from coming into its own in the present state of public enlightenment. In the meantime the year has seen many of the measurements not based on scientific tests. Thus business men complain of the product of the elementary school as it comes to them, and college teachers complain of the inaccurate work of the high-school students. In so far as this criticism is based on comparisons between what the schools do now and what they used to do, there is, as has been shown in connection with the Springfield tests, no justification for the idea that the pupils of the old time were better at the fundamental branches than they are to-day. Quite the contrary. There is also the fact, which tends to affect this particular judgment from business men, that the mentally alert are nowadays much more likely to continue their schooling than to enter business at an early age; so that this criticism is frequently based on the less creditable products of the public schools.

There is a disposition in the educational criticism of the year to charge the inaccuracy complained of by business men and others to influences peculiar to American life that have survived despite the opposing work of education. D. O. S. Lowell, of the Roxbury Latin School, after analyzing certain peculiar traits of American life, declares that because of them "average boys and girls believe it is enough to half learn a lesson, to half know a principle, to half explain a problem, to half understand an explanation or assignment."

It should be said, however, that there is some criticism, especially foreign, that attributes this inaccuracy, together with other undesirable characteristics, to our educational system. The Germans report a lack of thoroughness in our school work, particularly in the secondary schools; English critics carry the judgment a step further,

and declare that the graduates of our colleges "lack power to think." Many of them admit, however, that our task is different from anything that has been attempted elsewhere, and they are usually quite ready to grant that our way may be necessarily different.

DEMOCRACY AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

There is one criticism of the results of education in this country that affects so particularly the social aspects of it that it must not be passed over. It is charged that the public school inculcates dis-taste for labor—by which is usually meant physical labor. William Hawley Smith tells of the high-school teacher who, when asked whether her girl students "would be willing to marry men who got their hands dirty from work," replied indignantly: "Well, I should hope not; I hope we've taught them better than that." Part of this attitude is due to the phenomenon of social rise regularly observed in this country, and critics who profess to discover undemocratic tendencies in the public-school system, more particularly in the high school, are met with the assertion that this is but one of the inevitable results of social readjustment. It is pointed out that wherever the public purpose of education is not fully understood, the idea prevails quite generally that a rise in the social scale means less work on the part of the individual so rising. In this respect the best justification for such subjects as school gardening, woodworking, and other industrial branches ought to be that they will aid in the more complete recognition of the dignity and importance of every kind of human labor.

The charge of lack of democracy is directed usually at the high school, and is less frequent than usual in the educational criticism of the year. Indeed, one critic who is severest in denouncing the weaknesses of the public schools thus pays his tribute to their work in furthering democracy:

All criticisms regarding the faults of the public schools, either as they have been or as they now are, should be tempered and modified, and in large measure excused, by our acknowledgment of the inestimable blessing they have already proved themselves to be as makers of democracy. All their past and present shortcomings are as nothing when compared with the great results they have yielded, on the lines of good-fellowship and love, amongst all classes of people. There is not one who reads these lines who can not verify the truth of this in his or her own life. Think of the men and women in all ranks of life whom you now hold in high esteem because of the knowledge of them that you gained in the public school.

II. RECONSTRUCTIVE PROGRAMS.

To what extent is American education attempting to meet constructively the current educational criticism? To a surprisingly

large extent and in the following ways: (1) By a noteworthy open-mindedness toward new ideas and new plans; (2) by numerous school investigations, designed to test actual conditions with respect to general efficiency and up-to-dateness; (3) by opening wide the avenues of information, so that the people may have accurate knowledge of the work of education as it is carried on in their schools; (4) by nationalizing local experience and thereby formulating standards for public-school systems based on the best obtainable educational theory and practice; (5) by constructive programs on the part of practical school administrators intended to keep school systems as completely as possible up to the community's altered standards and shifting demands.

SCHOOL INQUIRIES.

The voluminous literature of criticism by educators is sufficient indication of their alertness to new ideas. American educators are disposed to put their educational theories and practice to every conceivable test and change their methods whenever necessary. Hence the remarkable number of school surveys, investigations, and inquiries that have characterized the past year, almost without exception owing their inspiration as well as execution to schoolmen. These inquiries are noted for the relentlessness with which they lay bare weaknesses and advertise deficiencies. The more professional the character of the investigation, the more severe the strictures seem likely to be. Yet schoolmen welcome such investigations and frequently seek them for their own community. The National Council of Education has recently been asked by a committee of representative schoolmen to constitute a commission on school efficiency that shall be "representative of the most significant scholarship and of the best administrative practice known to our profession," for the purpose of making it easier to carry on school inquiries. In addition to aiding in the work of deriving scales of measurement and furnishing expert advice with respect to the nature and scope of school surveys and inquiries—

It should offer to members of our profession engaged in administrative work the opportunity to secure a scientific investigation of their systems of schools under the direction of professional experts. As the situation is at present, we have the anomaly which permits a politician, an interested book-publishing company, or a personal enemy of the chief administrative officer of a school system to attempt to secure the removal of such an officer without any adequate measure of the efficiency of the school system or the accomplishment of the man whose work is called in question. The establishment of a body of professional experts would in time render such action impossible.¹

¹ See Education Bulletin, 1913, No. 13.

MAKING KNOWN THE SCHOOLS' NEEDS.

Not only do schoolmen of to-day show conspicuously their desire to have their work carefully scrutinized by competent judges, but they wish above all to give ample publicity to the work they are doing with the public school. They seek to acquaint the public with the needs and problems of education as a vital public concern. This attitude on the part of schoolmen is but one of the many signs of the vigorous sentiment for closer contact than ever before between the work of the schools and the work of life. It is an essential part of the educational policy of progressive communities to-day to relate the schools so closely to sound public needs that the schools will become the immediate concern of all the citizens, instead of a sacred institution to be viewed from afar. The intimacy that must replace the aloofness of the past is well expressed by William H. Allen, director of the Bureau of Municipal Research, of New York City, who, speaking from the point of view of an observer standing between the schools and the public, states the lines of attack by which a community must learn its unmet educational needs:

1. By democratizing the purpose of the schools.
2. By demanding that the public be continuously informed regarding school work.
3. By making it easy for newspapers to report what the schools do and need.
4. By denying that the schools are better than the health department, police department, tax assessor, or the politics with which school children must learn to cope. Schools are weakened, not helped, by being separated from the main currents of community life and by being protected against problems which play upon and educate the child before going to school and after its few short years at school.
5. By encouraging school-teachers, principals, superintendents, and commissioners to tell currently what they want, what they need, what they dislike, and where they fail. This means adequate comparative statements; first, by supervisory officers for schools within each community, and then by county and State superintendents, by the United States Commissioner of Education, and by national comparing agencies such as the Russell Sage Foundation. Having given up the fiction that there is something sacred about school curriculum, school policy, or schoolmen, there will at once become available a vast amount of testimony, interest, and constructive suggestion on the part of those who best see the unmet school needs, namely, the men and women who are meeting the children and are therefore better able to solve the problems of curriculum, management, and health. This will follow, not precede, the establishment of definite and continuous tests for the efficiency of school trustees and of the mayors who appoint them or the public which elects them.

In this connection there are a number of national agencies whose work during the past year has been of conspicuous value in gaining wider publicity for educational problems. By focusing attention upon the problem of high school and college, the Carnegie Foundation has aided materially in raising the standards of both types of

institution, and the results of this work have been especially notable during the past year. The recent comparative description of the school systems in the 48 States, as worked out by the Russell Sage Foundation, is another of the things that help in this movement to make the real needs of the public schools known. Such nationalizing of public knowledge of education is of very real value in raising the efficiency level of public education.

FORMULATION OF STANDARDS AND PROGRAMS.

The actual formulation of standards and the making of practical programs has been particularly noticeable during the year under review. These represent definite attempts to adjust education to changed social demands. Thus Supt. Randall J. Condon, formerly of Providence, is reported to have outlined for the schools of that city a statement of desiderata that would doubtless be accepted by many school superintendents of advanced ideas:

The full conservation of the health of the children.

The introduction of manual training and home economics into the elementary schools.

Adequate provision for all children who are mentally and physically defective, the tubercular, the lame, the blind, the deaf, and the feeble-minded.

The development of industrial education under trade and continuation schools and part time cooperation courses that shall connect directly with the leading industries and occupations of the city.

A distinct modification of the plan of grammar-school instruction along industrial lines for the over-age, slow, and indifferent pupils who will not go beyond the grammar schools.

An extension of the home school to all sections of the city, educating girls directly for the home and for their future duties and responsibilities as wives and mothers.

An extension of the kindergarten to all sections of the city.

The maintaining of summer schools for children who need or wish to take advantage of such opportunities.

The opening of the schools as social centers, for the use of all the people in any direction that makes for social and civic betterment.

A continual and distinct recognition and conservation of the interests of the pupils who can remain longer in school and who are likely to pursue their studies beyond the high school.

REORGANIZING THE ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL.

This program refers only in a general way to the elimination of waste by means of reorganizing the elementary and high schools. Many attempts have recently been made to solve this problem in actual practice, some of them notably successful. Prof. Calvin O. Davis, of the University of Michigan, has summed up the discussion and experimentation in this field by a statement of four distinct

methods of reorganization, any one of which, he believes, will solve the problem. These four methods are:

1. Continue the external form of the school as it is to-day, but introduce into the seventh and eighth grades the principles now obtaining in the administration of the high school. This would leave the elementary school outwardly in much the same condition as to-day. A modified form of departmental teaching would be provided, an enriched curriculum, a closer approach to the idea of student responsibility, and a better promotional system.

2. Bring the seventh and eighth grades into the high-school building and organize and administer all work above the sixth grade as a unit, both respecting external form and internal operation. This plan merely takes the seventh and eighth grades out of their present setting and merges them with the present high school. They thereby are brought fully under the principles dominating secondary education. Departmental teaching, limited election of studies, scientific methods of instruction, a freer spirit of regulation and control, all are henceforth to be the birthright of the seventh and eighth grade students as they are at present of the four upper grades.

3. Make a complete differentiation of schools and subject matter from the very beginning of the seventh grade. This plan implies a differentiation of schools and of subject matter and in buildings at the very outset. From the sixth grade the ways diverge. All work beyond this is organized in separate and distinct schools by themselves. In its complete organization there will be seven distinct types of schools, the number varying with local conditions. These several general types are: (a) College preparatory school, (b) manual training school, (c) high school of practical arts for girls, (d) high school of commerce, (e) the business school, (f) the trade school for boys, (g) the trade school for girls.

4. Group the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades by themselves as a junior high school, and the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades by themselves as a senior high school. This method is adaptable to large cities where separate buildings and separate control may be had.

PROF. HANUS'S FORMULATION.

One of the most ambitious attempts yet made to set up a program of achievement for American education is that of Prof. Hanus, head of the New York City school inquiry. Recognizing at the outset of his work the absence of standards by which to measure school systems, he undertakes to formulate them. Since his formulation is not only based on a reliable personal judgment and wide comparative opportunities, but is accepted almost completely by a large committee of coworkers in the inquiry, it may be taken as fairly representative of the advanced educational thought of to-day as to what schools ought to be and do. The literature of contemporary educational theory is so scattered that a summation of this sort, applied by an acknowledged authority as the criterion for an existing school system, forms an important document in progress.¹ It is therefore given below:

1. Public education should train efficient citizens—men and women who recognize and appreciate the common interests of our democratic society and are

¹ Report of the New York City school inquiry: Introductions and conclusions.

able to promote their progressive development. These interests are spiritual (intellectual, moral, æsthetic), hygienic, economic, civic.

2. Public education should strive gradually to emancipate each pupil from external restraint and guidance, and thus render him self-directing—intellectually, morally, and physically stable, alert, vigorous, and active. Together with the instruction public education offers, it should therefore insist throughout on discipline that is wise, kindly, and firm, including appropriate punishment when it is needed—a discipline that insists on progressive conformity of conduct to insight, including habits of steady application and reasonable achievement.

3. Public education should endeavor to prepare each pupil to make the best use of his leisure, as well as of his working hours. Satisfactory diversions and good recreative habits are important for both the individual and society. Without disparaging harmless diversions and amusements, public education should therefore strive to develop an appreciation of, and a demand for, the serious pleasures our civilization affords.

4. Public education should strive to render each pupil economically intelligent and efficient. It should direct each pupil's attention to a vocation to which he may reasonably aspire: that is, every pupil should be led gradually to realize that a suitable vocation, accessible to him and adapted to him, is indispensable to a useful and happy life. As he approaches the end of his school career, whatever his age may be, he should come to see that his vocation will be not only the means of satisfying his personal wants and ambitions, but, because it is the chief means of establishing significant relations between himself and his fellow men, it is also the source of such public service as he is capable of and may be called upon to render. Public education should, therefore, provide for the development of vocational purposes based on vocational enlightenment (vocational guidance); and it should offer each pupil appropriate training for the vocation of his choice.

Schools must therefore be so constituted as to provide adequately:

(a) The means of appropriate and, so far as possible, complete general development (self-discovery, and self-realization, and preparation for general social service for every pupil); and

(b) Various kinds of vocational training adapted to the needs, tastes, and future callings of all pupils who pass at once from school to their life work; and for those who wish to improve themselves after they have gone to work (preparation for specific social service, i. e., for usefulness).

They must therefore provide:

1. The elements of general culture, comprising—

(a) A satisfactory command of the school arts—the three R's.

(b) An insight into, appreciation of, and power to deal with (1) the recorded ideals and experience of the race; and (2) all worthy interests of contemporary life so far as they can be rendered interesting, intelligible, and accessible to children and youth of school age; that is to say, the school program (program of studies) must cover (a) The school arts—reading, writing, and arithmetic; (b) language and literature (modern and ancient); (c) history, government, and economics; (d) art (pictorial and plastic art, constructive art, and music); (e) mathematics; (f) natural science; (g) manual arts and domestic arts; (h) physical education, including physical training and athletics; (i) vocational guidance; in—

I. Kindergartens.

II. Elementary schools, with differentiated upper grades, and well articulated with the

III. High schools, having as wide a range of electives (administered under wise guidance) as possible.

2. Vocational training (training for specific social service) at the upper end of the elementary school in industrial and commercial schools, whether called secondary schools or not, in—

(a) Day vocational schools for normal pupils over 14 years of age, whether they have completed an eight years' elementary school course or not, and who will not go to a high school.

(b) Day cooperative and continuation schools (vocational) for pupils 14 to 18 years of age who can not afford or will not take the time to attend a day vocational school.

(c) Evening continuation schools, vocational and nonvocational, for pupils over 18 years of age who are at work during the daytime.

(d) Vocational high schools—vocational schools of secondary grade.

(1) High schools of commerce.

(2) High schools of practical arts (technical high schools).

(3) Agricultural high schools.

Or well-organized separate departments of (1), (2), and (3) for vocational instruction in general high schools.

But the American people are not satisfied with schools for normal children only. They acknowledge their obligation to do all that can be done for exceptional children as well; hence they provide also schools or classes for (a) cripples, (b) anemic and tubercular children, (c) incorrigibles and truants, (d) blind children, (e) deaf children, (f) mentally defective children.

III. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.¹

The movement for vocational training in the public schools is now at a crisis in this country. With the vocational principle fully acknowledged, with more or less complete systems of vocational education in operation in a half dozen States and in numerous cities, and with constant demands from all sources for the extension of vocational training, the movement is not yet making the headway in practice that it should. There is a sort of opposition, very often unexpressed, that does not appear to be due so much to the fear of emphasis upon the "practical" at the expense of the "cultural" as to a feeling that certain features of the vocational propaganda seem to involve a form of social cleavage that is alien to the fundamental purpose of American education and American life. This objection is not at all against the principle of vocational training; indeed, the staunchest advocates of industrial training are among those who appear to feel this element of distrust. Whether this feeling is expressed or not, it plainly exists, and is at present clearly retarding the progress of the vocational movement with schoolmen and with the public generally.

The real difficulty seems to be that pioneers in the movement, having become saturated with the foreign experience from their close study of it, are inclined to try to force this foreign, specifically

¹ For a detailed report of progress during the year, see ch. 10.

German, practice upon American schools without sufficient effort to adjust it to American conditions. Many educators feel that they are asked to adopt a foreign system because of its proved industrial efficiency, regardless of the different social conditions in the United States. They feel that we must above all avoid the idea of separate schools for industrial training, since that sort of differentiation is bound to lead, if not to an undesirable social separation in itself, at least to the belief that some such separation is contemplated.

This is the real objection on the part of many vocational advocates to the "dual system" as proposed in several States. There is clearly something to be said on both sides of the question, but this one objection seems almost fatal. Those who object most strongly to the idea of separate schools, industrial high schools as distinct from "regular" high schools, for instance, point out that they tend to separate the population into groups with differing social interests just at the time when common social aims should be emphasized.

The objectors say:

The imperative need for vocational training for these boys and girls must not blind us to the danger of so introducing it as to separate those who are going into the trades from those who are going into the professions or business.

It is pointed out that the localities where industrial training is working out most successfully are those where the boys and girls who take the industrial course at no point lose touch with the other students. Thus, in Fitchburg the first year of high-school work is the same for all students, those who are going into the trades as well as those who are not. Thereafter the boys taking the cooperative course work one week in the shops, the next in school. They may have different instructors, but they remain in and of the high school; they never lose their identity with the school. Rightly or wrongly, the American is instinctively repelled by any diversification of educational aims that results in widely differentiated strata of society. He feels that separation of pupils in different schools involves discrimination. He not only demands equality of opportunity in education, but a certain fundamental similarity of education, experience, and actual intercourse up to young manhood and womanhood, to insure like aims and ideals in the wider democracy of which the school is at once a model and a part. It is instinctively felt that if boys and girls from different living groups get together in the public high school they will be much more likely to get together in life. Any movement for vocational education, therefore, which even appears to ignore this spirit, is apt to run the risk of being accused of interference with the school's duty toward democracy.

It would hardly be fair to give so much attention to this rather unformulated objection if it were not that the vocational principle is

so important for the advancement of the schools. For the same reason it is believed that only good can come from calling attention to another objection that is raised in some of the comment of the year—that the vocational appeal is to selfish instincts, and that therefore care must be taken lest it work real injury to the spirit of social service that is at the basis of modern education. Thus Mr. George H. Martin, in discussing conjointly the play movement and the vocational movement, says:

It may seem strange, but it is true that the two latest movements in education—the play movement and the vocational movement—while undoubtedly, on the whole, beneficent, make the work of the high school harder in meeting what I have called the supreme obligation. Each of these movements serves to strengthen one of two tendencies fatal to the spirit of social service.

The play movement tends to promote a frivolous spirit, and the vocational movement tends to promote a selfish spirit.

These movements, as worked out in practice, appeal to the love of pleasure and love of gain of the individual. They are primarily unsocial in their motive. They throw upon the high school the added burden of showing to the student that the better body produced by better play and the greater productive efficiency produced by industrial training make him a better instrument for the service of society.

Somewhat the same idea is expressed by a less sympathetic critic, who, taking as his text "America's Public Schools are Meant to Make Citizens," declares:

The trend to-day of nearly all State or municipal school systems is determined by the supposedly unquestionable principle that the children must be "taught what they will need after they get out of school." Opinions differ in different communities about what pupils will "need" in after life; some towns think it dancing and music, others carpentry and cooking. But all insist on being thus "practical"—with an eye either to commercial or to social success, according to local temper.

The vice of this calculation is not at all in adding manual training and industrial features to the public-school curriculum—they ought to be added wherever there is room for them—but in debasing the ideal of the school from a public purpose, large and social, to a personal purpose small and selfish.

The cry for "practical education" is, unconsciously no doubt but perilously none the less, a cry for success-making schools in the place of nation-building schools—and that is simply one more guise for the everthreatening usurpation of materialism where the hopes of the higher man and the nobler race demand idealism.¹

On the other hand, a distinctly hopeful sign for the vocational movement is the prevailing tendency to recognize it in its larger aspects, not as merely industrial training, but as preparation for life in every field of endeavor. In this respect it is a valuable part of the tendency to connect more closely school and life.

The fact that the vocational movement has outgrown the merely industrial or trade education stage is indicated by the tendency

¹ The Continent, vol. 43, No. 31, p. 1065, Aug. 1, 1912.

to apply the principle to the rural districts in the form of agricultural instruction. Nowhere could vocational training be better justified than in rural schools. In the cities vocational training may be viewed as an answer to the well-defined demand for better advantages for the boy or girl who does not take to books, or for better trained workers in the trades and in the homes; but vocational education in the rural districts ought to mean the reclaiming of a civilization. Proper emphasis of the vocational principle with respect to agriculture and related interests in the rural schools is already aiding notably in the upbuilding of the country.

At this stage of the vocational movement, when the problem has become essentially that of applying accepted principles, and many States are considering legislation for State systems of vocational training, one of the most useful things is a platform of workable statements based on the sum total of available experience. Such a program, admittedly tentative, has been drawn up by the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, and is given elsewhere in this report. Like the Hanus formulation on page 9, it is worthy of special attention as a representation of current demands in a reliable and authoritative form.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

Closely related to the vocational education movement is that of vocational guidance. Speaking generally, vocational guidance, in the sense of directing children into occupations, is by no means a new thing; it is merely the attempt to systematize a process that has always been practiced more or less informally. The peculiarly complicated character of modern industry and the increasing peril of blind-alley employments have led to the demand for systematic selection of workers for jobs and jobs for workers. Vocational training is meant to provide boys and girls with the kind of training necessary to increase their efficiency in human society; vocational guidance is to direct these future workers into employments not only adapted to their particular abilities, but advantageous for the individual's future and the welfare of the community. The vocational guidance movement has gained considerable momentum since the establishment of the Boston vocation bureau in 1909, even though it may still be, as some one has said, "little more than a body of good intentions without any clarified plan."

One of the most significant reports yet made on the subject is that of the Vocational Guidance Survey of New York City.¹ This survey was inaugurated under the auspices of a joint committee

¹ See 14th Ann. Rept. of the City Supt. of Schools, App. G, p. 385.

of the Junior League and the Public Education Association. It was organized for the purpose of studying the actual situation in New York City of children leaving school to go to work, in the hope of determining what vocational guidance should mean to the public schools of the city. The method was to examine intensively a small group of children in different school districts, and to relate the results closely to the larger group—the 19,000 children who took out employment certificates in Manhattan in 1911. The investigators studied the reasons for leaving school, and found them much more complicated than is usually imagined. In the first place, they found that "economic pressure" accounted for but 30 per cent of those leaving school to go to work. The others left for a variety of reasons, of which apathy on the part of the parents was the most conspicuous. Some children felt too big for school; many passively took it for granted that 14 was the appropriate age to leave; "more of them suddenly wanted to *work*, they wanted the activity of it, the responsibility of it; they felt the approach of maturity, and wanted to earn money and begin to take part in the real life of the world."

A study of the children after they had gone to work left the investigators with a feeling of skepticism about the desirability of "guiding children into vocations." They found that in most instances the children had not found work which meant anything to them, and that there was—

an unformulated, unconscious feeling of protest against the lack of individual attention and training, against the military discipline and explicable tasks.

The demand for a job "where you can learn" had become insistent. The result was that the "Vocational Guidance Survey" voluntarily changed itself into the "Vocational *Education* Survey." The reasons which led to this action are indicated in the following conclusions, drawn by Miss Alice P. Barrows, director of the survey:

(1) A system of vocational guidance which would mean finding jobs for children under 16 would be not only futile but dangerously near exploitation, however well meant the intention might be. The facts showed, broadly speaking, that there are no jobs for children under 16 which they ought to take.

(2) It is useless to attempt to guide children into "vocations" before we have more information. Neither the Vocational Guidance Survey nor any other organization has adequate information at present about the demand for workers or the opportunities for and conditions of work and training in the 20 largest industries, not to mention the legion minor ones.

(3) What the children want is vocational training. The kernel of truth in this popular movement for vocational guidance is the need of vocational training for children. Vocational guidance should mean guidance for training, not guidance for jobs. Hence, under present conditions the interests of public-school children can best be served, not by the establishment of a vocation bureau, but by the development of vocational training.

(4) Certain questions must be answered if the development of vocational training in this country is to be sound. There have been profound revolutionary changes in industry. * * * A study of the facts of industry is, therefore, the only sound basis for discovering what types of industrial training—whether prevocational schools, vocational schools, continuation schools, or half-time work in school and shop—are practicable and desirable for children between 14 and 16 and 16 and 18 years of age.

IV. THE MONTESSORI METHOD.

The continued interest in the Montessori method of educating young children is significant of the open-minded disposition of American school men. Even in the face of more or less unfavorable reports brought by later investigators of the Italian schools where Madame Montessori's methods are in operation, there is an inclination if not to accept the plan, at least to examine it sympathetically with a view to enriching our own educational practice. Thus Dr. Holmes, one of the first in this country to become acquainted with the Montessori work, and perfectly cognizant of certain manifest difficulties in transplanting the system, still believes "that we do well to adopt a cordial, even a credulous, attitude" toward it, on the ground that it is both suggestive and promising for the future, even if in details it may be disappointing. Dr. Holmes sums up the characteristic features of the Montessori system as follows:

First and most important, an organization and equipment which make it possible to dispense absolutely with the artificial restraints commonly imposed in the schools and to grant children a freedom they could not have even in their own homes.

Second, a plan of instruction and management which dispenses with formal class teaching and substitutes for it the individual guidance of the child's own efforts to learn.

Third, a series of activities and a set of materials and apparatus especially designed to develop children's bodies and minds systematically, and the didactic objects, originated by Dr. Montessori or taken over from Seguin and others, for sense training and physical development.

Fourth, a daily program which includes a large variety of social enterprises in which the children are trained for the duties of practical life and to which they may turn at almost any time if they tire of the didactic materials or the other formal work. Under this last category comes the hygienic care of the children themselves, which includes careful medical inspection and also anthropometric measurements for both scientific and corrective purposes.

Dr. Holmes emphasizes particularly the organization and environment. A Montessori school is, indeed, he says, a "house of childhood." It is a Republic, in which the children are free citizens. It is this condition which permits and favors the real Montessori method, the method of free individual auto-education. He says:

The fundamental difference between a Montessori school and an ordinary public school of whatever grade is that in the Montessori school there is no teaching as we ordinarily understand the term; that is, children are not

gathered in groups at set times and made to go through set activities. There is no lack of discipline in a Montessori school; the order is excellent, for it is the order of busy, happy, mutually respectful, intensely purposive little men and women. But there is no constraint and repression. The children come and go practically at will, so long as they stay within bounds and do not disturb their fellows. In short, the order is like the order of a home or a club, not like the order of a barracks, a man-of-war, a prison, or a school.

Kindergartners are particularly interested in the possible developments of the Montessori system, and the Montessori theories have been prominently before the kindergarten meetings of the year. In comparing Froebelian and Montessori methods in a talk before one of these meetings recently, Prof. Earl Barnes attempted to place Montessori historically. Wilderspin, Froebel, Seguin, Montessori, is his order. He shows that Dr. Montessori has taken Seguin's idea and applied it to normal children. He then makes the following comparison of the striking differences as they appear to him:

Froebel's method grew out of the study of life as an ideal whole; Montessori's out of a study of backward children. One rests in concepts; the other on a base of sense impressions. One reaches toward ultimate ideals of thought and feeling through symbolic types; the other offers systematic series of exercises as preparatory for the more immediate future. One keeps its exercises related to reality through play as in the occupations; the other draws its materials from real life, but teaches them as abstractions, as in buttoning and lacing. One provides amply for the future years, but lacks exact discipline for to-morrow; the other prepares for to-morrow, but lacks a vision of the future years.¹

Prof. Barnes believes that the kindergarten might well absorb most of the Montessori system and be much the stronger for it. He sees a certain kindergarten weakness on the side of sense training, and thinks that the Seguin exercises, as adapted by Dr. Montessori, "would add definiteness to security of content."

The question, What is there in the Montessori system that we in America can wisely utilize in the education of our children during the kindergarten age? was more critically answered at the Philadelphia meeting by William Heard Kilpatrick. Though agreeing that—

in the matter of scientific attitude, in the doctrine of real individual liberty, and in the insistence upon concrete life experience, the kindergarten in general and the conservative kindergarten in particular can learn something of distinct value from the Montessori system—

he frankly declares it his opinion that—

in point of richness of material, in the matter of play and games, in the fuller utilization of social cooperation, of the imagination and of invention, Madame Montessori has much to learn from our better American practice.

¹ International Kindergarten Union, Philadelphia Round Table. (See *Kindergarten Review*, Apr., 1913.)

And again:

We have in this country a body of educational theory superior to Froebel and Montessori alike. If the school practice of this early age were brought thoroughly in line with the best that America otherwise knows, we should henceforth need to hear but little of Froebel and less of Montessori.

Little can be reported of the Montessori method in actual practice in this country beyond the palpable facts of propaganda and discussion. It appears to be surviving the suspicion of commercialism, and, as the foregoing discussion shows, is receiving serious consideration from American educators. The attempt has already been made in a number of cities to put the method into practice, but it is entirely too early to measure results; even those who are making the attempt are as yet unwilling to give a definite opinion of its success.

If it does nothing else, the Montessori work will be considered valuable for its influence in attracting increased public attention to the educational problems of early childhood; and in this respect its influence is apt to be quite as great in the home as in the school. The limitations of its adaptability for school use in the United States are carefully stated by Dr. Holmes, who is inclined to be the most sympathetic of the observers of the method. After indicating that in his opinion the Montessori method "will make schools less narrow and less narrowing, homes richer in opportunities for development," he continues:

But American homes can not themselves become Montessori schools, for, although it may be profitable for a good many homes to have the didactic apparatus at hand, no home can give its children all the freedom and the attention they would get in a "House of Childhood * * *." Nor will most American homes be found willing to give up to houses of childhood so many educational functions as the homes of San Lorenzo have been willing to surrender. The children of San Lorenzo have profited by that surrender; so would the children of any tenement section of our cities; so, for a time at least, would the children of most American homes, even those of the well-to-do; but except where poverty constrains both father and mother to constant labor and consequent neglect of their children, it is surely better for the parents, and thus, in the long run, better for the children, to keep within the home as many educational rights and obligations as they can. America will not look kindly upon Dr. Montessori's plan to communize completely the great duty of developing persons. We are far from the day in which our economic and social system will permit most parents to undertake their proper portion of that supreme task with the necessary leisure, intelligence, and devotion; but to give it over to schools is not the final solution of the problem.

This means that the very heart of the Montessori scheme can not be included in our use of it.

V. TEACHERS AND THE HIGH COST OF LIVING.

In view of the rapidly increasing demands made upon the public schools it is rather disheartening to consider the economic status of those upon whom educational efficiency ultimately depends—the

teachers. The problem of teachers' salaries is by no means a new one, but it has seldom been shown how serious the whole matter is in its larger social aspects. Teachers, like all those on fixed salaries, have felt the increased cost of living to a greater degree than other workers, and in a way that means serious social loss, since the efficiency of all producing classes of the population is so directly affected by the process of education. The whole problem is presented with a solid background of reliable economic fact in the current report of the committee on "teachers' salaries and the high cost of living," of the National Education Association.

The report is based on an investigation of five American cities in different sections of the country. Especially significant in the findings are the lowered standards that inevitably follow increased cost of living without adequate salary advance; the lessened social efficiency of a group of workers unable to save for old age; and the danger of a condition which discourages marriage and the raising of a family. The report brings out these points clearly and unmistakably. The scope of the committee's report will be seen from the summary below:

MEASUREMENT OF THE INCREASED COST OF LIVING.

The United States Bureau of Labor found that in 1911 wholesale prices were 44.1 per cent higher than in 1897. Measured by wholesale prices a teacher whose salary had remained fixed at \$1,000 since 1897 would have had no greater purchasing power in 1911 than \$693.76 possessed in the earlier year.

The increase of wholesale prices has, of course, been reflected to a greater or less degree in retail prices generally. In the case of 15 staple articles of food the Bureau of Labor finds that from 1896 to 1911 retail prices increased 50.2 per cent. Figures for the first six months of 1912 show that the upward flight of retail food prices, which was temporarily arrested in 1911, has begun again with increased rapidity. In June, 1912, retail food prices were 61.7 per cent higher than the average for 1896.

CITIES INVESTIGATED.

The communities chosen—Cincinnati, Hamilton, Denver, Atlanta, and New Haven—represent four distinct geographical sections of the country. In the discussion of the topics considered in Part II of the report, numerous comparisons are drawn between these communities with regard to such matters as age, sex, educational training, experience, salaries, etc., of teachers.

PERSONS DEPENDENT UPON TEACHERS FOR SUPPORT.

It is frequently asserted that the salaries of men teachers are fixed with reference to the burden of a family, actual or prospective. To what extent are unmarried women teachers burdened with the support of others?

On this question detailed data are presented for Denver. Of the 266 women grade teachers of that city 157, or 59 per cent, had others dependent upon them. The average salary of the unincumbered teacher of this group is

\$885.53, while the average amount of salary of those who are supporting others is \$567.84 per person supported. Of the 30 single woman teachers in the high schools of Denver, 14 support themselves only and 16 have others dependent upon them for support. These 16 support 7 persons entirely and 19 persons partially. The 25 married men teaching in the high schools of the same city support entirely 103 persons (including themselves), and 15 persons partially. Working out the cost of such support on the basis of adults only, it is shown that the 14 married women of this group with no others dependent upon them have an average from salary of \$1,211.83 to meet their own needs exclusively; the 16 unmarried women with others dependent upon them have an average from salary of \$801.03 to spend for each adult person, including themselves; while the married men have an average from salary of \$413.49 for the equivalent of each adult person, including themselves.

That the proportion of unmarried women teachers supporting others is large and the burden of such support heavy is shown for all cities and teaching groups by one of the tables in this section of the report. A single citation will illustrate the nature of this material. Of the 434 unmarried women grade teachers in Cincinnati 264, or 60.8 per cent, are supporting others, as follows: 28 male and 34 female minor dependents, of whom 16 are totally and 46 partially supported; and 91 male and 303 female adult dependents, of whom 199 are totally and 195 partially supported. Other tables show the extent to which this burden increases with advanced years.

HOME OWNERSHIP.

The percentage of married men teachers in the cities studied who own their homes is 57.3. How this varies in different localities is indicated by tables of teaching groups and cities.

PROPERTY OF TEACHERS.

Unmarried women grade teachers in the five cities report an average value of all property, real and personal, of \$1,091.94. In one city the average for teachers of this group and sex is less than half of this amount. Similar averages are presented for all teaching groups by cities. A table showing the number of teachers reporting property holdings of various specified amounts also brings out the large number who have not succeeded in acquiring any property.

Thus among unmarried women grade teachers the percentages reporting no property are as follows: Under 25 years of age, 67.07 per cent; 25 to 30 years of age, 52.83 per cent; 30 to 35 years of age, 38.88 per cent; 35 to 40 years of age, 30.87 per cent; 40 to 45 years of age, 29.19 per cent; 45 to 50 years of age, 20.21 per cent; 50 to 55 years of age, 21.43 per cent; 55 to 60 years of age, 14.28 per cent; over 60 years of age, 19.05 per cent. While the decrease in the proportion of the propertyless thus shown is gratifying, still the percentage of those even in the higher age groups who have acquired no property is alarmingly large.

A detailed study of single women grade teachers over 50 years of age shows that in Cincinnati only 5 out of 66 and in Denver only 9 out of 42 such teachers have property in excess of \$5,000, which is probably the lowest possible amount upon which they could retire at their own expense. This in spite of the fact that the two cities referred to pay by far the best salaries to this group of teachers. Similar figures for other groups of teachers make clear the necessities for teachers' pensions.

Out of 1,600 teachers of all ranks in the five cities studied only 13 were found to be worth over \$15,000. A detailed examination of these cases shows that nearly all owe their good fortune to sources outside their salaries as teachers. The common observation that teaching is not a money-making pursuit would seem to be more than confirmed by the results of this investigation.

SAVINGS OF TEACHERS DURING 1911.

In round numbers, unmarried women grade teachers in the five cities with average salaries of from \$550 to \$900, saved from salaries in 1911 an average of from \$30 to \$90. The larger percentages saved, as salaries are advanced, indicate a provident spirit. In Cincinnati and Hamilton, however, slightly more than one-third, in New Haven and Denver more than two-fifths, and in Atlanta very nearly two-thirds of the women grade teachers reported no savings in 1911. The relation between this unsatisfactory condition and low salaries is developed in the accompanying tables. Even among teachers of longer experience and higher rank the proportion of nonsavers is large. Nor can the amounts laid aside by those who report savings for the year be considered satisfactory. Under existing conditions it is clear that the great majority of teachers are so situated that they can not save enough from salaries to enable them to retire at their own expense.

LIFE INSURANCE.

The moral obligation resting upon married men teachers to insure their lives is recognized by a large majority of them. In Cincinnati and Denver only 13 out of 138 married men teachers are uninsured. The average amount of insurance carried, however, is far from adequate. Even combining insurance with property owned, only 4 out of the 138 married men teachers referred to above would, if they were to die now, leave estates aggregating over 10 times the average salary they are now receiving. Nearly two-thirds of them would leave estates amounting to less than five times their average salaries. Death of the breadwinner in the majority of such cases would inevitably mean a sharp reduction in the standard of living of the survivors.

RESIDENCE AND AMOUNT PAID FOR BOARD AND ROOM BY UNMARRIED TEACHERS.

Rate of board differs materially in the different cities. In Denver the average weekly commercial rate paid for board and room by women grade teachers is \$7.15; in New Haven, \$5.42; in Hamilton, \$5.15; and in Atlanta, \$4.90.

This section of the report indicates the advantage generally enjoyed by teachers living with parents or other relatives. The percentage of unmarried teachers not living with parents or other relatives is a rough index of the extent to which cities draw their teachers from outside localities. Wide differences in this regard are noted. In all five of the cities, 28.75 per cent of unmarried teachers are living apart from parents or other relatives. As age advances a constantly increasing percentage of unmarried women grade teachers are found living apart from parents or other relatives.

AVERAGE SALARIES AND OTHER SOURCES OF INCOME OF TEACHERS.

The purpose of this section of the report is to ascertain the amount of the earnings and other income of teachers in addition to their salaries. Particular importance attaches to the earnings derived from extra teaching or other outside work, although interest on savings, etc., and income from property is also considered. More than half of all the teachers in the five cities belong to groups

adding less than 2½ per cent, and nearly 90 per cent belong to groups adding less than 5 per cent to their salaries from extra teaching or other outside work. In practice, therefore, the opportunities open to teachers to supplement their salaries in this way are not very largely productive. Men enjoy very great advantages over women teachers in this respect. An outline showing the sources of the teacher's outside income is also presented. The overwhelming predominance in this list of sedentary clerical and indoor forms of work is a very disquieting feature of the situation.

TEACHERS' EXPENDITURES.

In general the investigation showed that teachers spend more for rent and clothing than workingmen. This would indicate the pressure of higher community demands upon teachers. They also spend more than workingmen for life insurance, religious purposes, charity, amusement and vacations, and care of health. Grouping the following five items: (1) Dues of teachers' clubs; (2) educational books; (3) fees for institutes, lectures, normal courses, summer schools, etc.; (4) contributions to school activities; and (5) transportation costs due to attendance upon institutes, meetings of State and national education associations, etc., it is shown that the expenditures of the married men teachers above referred to in meeting these directly professional demands upon their funds amount to from 1.16 to 6.94 per cent of their total expenditures. Seventy unmarried women teachers report expenditures of from 1.07 to 5.14 in meeting these demands. In both cases the burden is heaviest upon teachers with smaller incomes. Board, room rent, and clothing in the case of these 70 unmarried women teachers account for from 57.60 to 78.50 per cent of their total expenditures. In general it is the smaller incomes which show the higher percentages for these three purposes. It is evident that where so large a proportion of teachers' salaries is claimed for the elementary necessities of food, shelter, and clothing scant margin is left for vacations, care of health, self-improvement, and provision for the future.

TEACHERS' SALARIES AND SALARIES OF OTHER MUNICIPAL EMPLOYEES.

A detailed comparison between the salaries of teachers of all ranks and the salaries of other municipal employees in Cincinnati, Denver, Atlanta, and New Haven shows that in all four of these cities the compensation of grade teachers is not only less than that of many groups of skilled manual workers, but also, in numerous cases, lower than that of common or unskilled labor. It is also noteworthy that the highest salaries obtainable in the school service beneath that of superintendent (e. g., by principals of high schools, supervisors, principals of larger schools, etc.) are much lower than the salaries paid to heads of departments and many of their subordinates in the city's service.

VI. ACADEMIC CELEBRATIONS.

INAUGURATION OF PRESIDENT HIBBEN.

The inauguration of the Rev. John Greer Hibben as president of Princeton University took place on May 11, 1912, following his election by the board of trustees in January. The President of the United States and the chief justice of the Supreme Court were guests of honor. In his address Dr. Hibben described the ideal university as consisting of two phases—a phase in which every effort is directed

to the attainment of freedom, and a progressive phase of development in which the freedom gained in the earlier stages finds for itself varied pursuits and pleasures in the fields of knowledge. Speaking of the doctrine of prescribed and elective college studies, Dr. Hibben declared:

In Princeton we have very positive convictions on this point. We believe that the teaching body of a university should select a consistent group of required studies for the express purpose of developing in the student to the highest degree of efficiency the full powers of his intellectual life. We believe that it is absolutely necessary to have a certain schooling in preparation for the responsibilities of freedom; and that the hit-and-miss choice of an immature mind in new and strange surroundings, the blind groping for truth by the process of trial and error, form a poor propaedeutic to the serious tasks of free investigation, of original thought, and of practical efficiency.

Dr. Hibben, in his address, spoke enthusiastically of the results of the preceptorial method of instruction in force at Princeton, as well as of the promising future of the new graduate college.

PRESIDENT MEIKLEJOHN, OF AMHERST.

President Hibben had been Stewart professor of logic before his election to the presidency. Another teacher of logic and philosophy was called to high administrative duties when Alexander Meiklejohn, formerly dean of Brown University, was inaugurated president of Amherst College, October 16, 1912. President Meiklejohn's induction into office was the occasion of an unusually brilliant gathering of distinguished delegates representing universities, colleges, and learned institutions. President Meiklejohn devoted his address to a consideration of the ideals of the college teacher, emphasizing particularly the aim of the liberal college as opposed to the technical or professional school. "The college," he said, "is primarily not a place of the body, nor of the feelings, nor even of the will; it is, first of all, a place of the mind."

Against this intellectual interpretation of the college our teachers find two sets of hostile forces constantly at work. Outside the walls there are the practical demands of a busy commercial and social scheme; within the college there are the trivial and sentimental and irrational misunderstandings of its own friends. * * *

As against the immediate practical demands from without, the issue is clear and decisive. College teachers know that the world must have trained workmen, skilled operatives, clever buyers and sellers, efficient directors, resourceful manufacturers, able lawyers, ministers, physicians, and teachers. But it is equally true that in order to do its own work, the liberal college must leave the special and technical training for these trades and professions to be done in other schools and by other methods. * * *

One may safely say on behalf of our college teachers, that their instruction is intended to be radically different from that given in the technical school or even in the professional school. Both these institutions are practical in a sense which the college, as an intellectual institution, is not. In the technical

school the pupil is taught how to do some one of the mechanical operations which contribute to human welfare. He is trained to print, to weave, to farm, to build; and for the most part he is trained to do these things by practice rather than by theory. His possession when he leaves the school is not a stock of ideas, of scientific principles, but a measure of skill, a collection of rules of thumb. His primary function as a tradesman is not to understand but to do, and in doing what is needed he is following directions which have first been thought out by others and are now practiced by him. The technical school intends to furnish training which, in the sense in which we use the term, is not intellectual but practical.

And elsewhere he adds:

In the technical school pupils are prepared for a specific work and are kept for the most part on the plane of perceptual action, doing work which others understand. In the professional school, students are properly within the realm of ideas and principles, but they are still limited to a specific human interest with which alone their understanding is concerned. But the college is called liberal as against both of these because the instruction is dominated by no special interest, is limited to no single human task, but is intended to take human activity as a whole, to understand human endeavors not in their isolation but in their relations to one another and to the total experience which we call the life of our people. And just as we believe that the building of ships has become more successful as men have come to a knowledge of the principles involved in their construction; just as the practice of medicine has become more successful as we have come to a knowledge of the human body, of the conditions within it and the influences without; just so the teacher in the liberal college believes that life as a total enterprise, life as it presents itself to each one of us in his career as an individual—human living—will be more successful in so far as men come to understand it and to know it as they attempt to carry it on. To give boys an intellectual grasp on human experience—this it seems to me is the teacher's conception of the chief function of the liberal college.

OTHER ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES.

Among other inaugurations during 1912 were that of Stratton D. Brooks, formerly superintendent of schools of Boston, as president of the University of Oklahoma, which occurred October 21; and that of Charles H. Keyes as president of the new Skidmore School of Arts at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., in August. Worthy of special mention is the appointment of Talcott Williams as director of the new Pulitzer School of Journalism of Columbia University.

There have been a large number of changes in executives on the part of institutions of college grade during the year, and at the present time an abnormally large number are without permanent heads. A partial list of institutions of college grade where changes in the executive office have recently been made is given herewith, the name of the present executive being placed after the institution: University of Alabama, George H. Denny; Georgetown University, Rev. Alphonsus J. Donlon; Howard University, Rev. S. M. Newman; New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts,

Edward T. Fairchild; De Pauw University, George R. Grose; Iowa State College, Raymond A. Pearson; Pomona College, James A. Blaisdell; Hamline University, Rev. Samuel F. Kerfoot; University of Montana, Edwin B. Craighead; University of Wyoming, C. A. Duniway; University of Porto Rico, E. M. Bainter; Washington and Lee University, Henry Louis Smith; Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College, G. R. Hightower; University of New Mexico, Rev. David R. Boyd; Davidson College, W. J. Martin; United States Military Academy, Col. C. P. Townsley.

ACADEMIC ANNIVERSARIES.

Mount Holyoke celebrated the seventy-fifth anniversary of its founding in October, 1912. Most of the leading colleges in the United States were represented by delegates, as well as 14 foreign institutions. President Mary Emma Woolley and Elizabeth Storrs Mead, president of the college from 1890 to 1900, welcomed the delegates, guests, and alumnae. The new memorial gateway was dedicated on the second day of the festivities. At the auditorium exercises President Hadley, of Yale, spoke on "Our colleges and their ethical problems." President Thomas, of Bryn Mawr, in an address on "The future of woman's higher education," presented the cause of the woman seeker after education and the obstacles in her path. Among other things, she said:

Women have almost won the right to study what and where they please. They have to-day almost equal opportunities for study. But they have not yet won the rewards of study. They are still shut out from the incentives to scholarship. Over one-half of all women college graduates teach, one-third of all graduate students in the United States are women fitting themselves for higher teaching. Yet even in the lower public schools the most responsible and highly-paid positions are reserved for men, and in the women's colleges only may women compete with men for full professorships. In all coeducational colleges and universities the number of women holding even subordinate teaching positions is jealously limited. Presidents of coeducational universities have sometimes told me that they would gladly advance women scholars were it not for the opposition of men teaching in the same departments.

Even in a women's college like Bryn Mawr there is a steady, although I believe almost unconscious, pressure exerted by some of the men on our faculty to prevent the appointment of women to vacant professorships. The world of scholarship and research has been a man's world. Men mistrust women's ability to breathe in this keener air. And in a sense they are right. Very few women—or men—can maintain scholarly research and enthusiastic teaching throughout a lifetime without living salaries or honorable recognition. Colleges for women, few and poorly endowed as they are, offer the only rewards for women scholars.

President Burton, of Smith College; Miss Pendleton, recently inaugurated president of Wellesley; and President Taylor, of Vassar, discussed other phases of the problem of college education.

The University of Michigan also celebrated its seventy-fifth anniversary in 1912 with significant ceremonies.

Among secondary institutions a celebration of note was the one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., and the dedication of the new building. This school, now one of the New York City public high schools, is the oldest existing institution chartered by the New York State regents. Atkinson Academy, in Atkinson, N. H., one of the first coeducational institutions in the United States, and one of the oldest of the New England secondary schools, also celebrated its one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary.

NEW YORK STATE EDUCATION BUILDING.

The dedication of the State Education Building, at Albany, should be placed among the notable educational events of the year. Guests were present from all over the world to witness the ceremonies by which New York State dedicated a magnificent specimen of American architecture to the exclusive purposes of public education. The idea behind the project is thus stated in the official announcement:

To find the inception of the idea of the New York State education building one must look back to the unification of educational interests of the State in 1904. Bringing together under one organization two State education departments which had become radically separated was an epochal achievement. It was felt that there ought to be a monument to this singular accomplishment, and that nothing would be more appropriate than a great State building which would indicate to the State and to the entire world the interest which New York maintains in both popular and higher education.

The State of Illinois has recently appropriated money for a State education building, and Indiana's Centennial Commission is to— formulate plans for the celebration of the centennial of the admission of Indiana into the Union by the erection of a State building and its dedication in 1916, to be known as the Indiana educational building.

VII. A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY.

The plan for a national university at the capital, first proposed in the early days of the Republic, and recently revived, was discussed at the Chicago meeting of the National Education Association by several prominent representatives of higher education.

President James, of the University of Illinois, opened the discussion with an argument based on the conception of education as a national function. After showing that the organization which he represented, the national association of State university presidents, had repeatedly indorsed the project of a national university, he laid down

several propositions that seemed to him fundamental: (1) That in a free Commonwealth education is essentially a national function; (2) that this country can not solve its educational problems in the large until it recognizes that education is the business of the Nation, and that pecuniary assistance for its support in a large way shall come through the organs of the Nation as a unit; (3) that we shall make vastly greater progress if we can get national attention concentrated upon our educational problems year after year as one of the fundamental issues going to the very heart of national life.

With these propositions as a basis he strongly upheld the idea of a national university. He said:

I mean by a national university an institution sufficiently like the ordinary institutions with which you are all acquainted to be thoroughly familiar to you; a teaching and training as well as an investigating institution, manned with the best men in all departments in which the human intellect has exercised itself, drawn from the entire world, equipped with all that money can provide, for the purpose of stimulating and increasing our interest in the world of the spirit and the world of sense about us.

Such an institution would not injure, but benefit every private and every State university. By its superior support, by its superior prestige, by its greater wealth, it would strike the popular imagination of this country in such a way as to give to the university idea itself an enormous impetus, the reflex effect of which would show itself in the increasing prosperity and development of every private and State institution.

President Van Hise, of the University of Wisconsin, discussing "A national university a national asset: An instrumentality for advanced research," advocated a different kind of institution. To his mind there was no necessity for a university of the type which existed elsewhere, no need of an additional university like the great endowed and State institutions of the country. He declared:

One who advocates a national university at Washington with the idea that it shall be a larger Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Cornell, or Chicago, a larger Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, or California, will fail in his advocacy, because he can not give to Congress a satisfactory reason for the expenditure of public funds for another university of a kind of which there is a sufficient number.

He emphasized the fact that it is the research material in existence at Washington which justifies the demand for a national university. The real aim of those advocating a national university, he said, should be to make available for the advancement of knowledge the unparalleled facilities of Washington to graduate students. He cited a long list of institutions and bureaus at Washington where valuable research material exists. He showed that because of the demand for immediate results, for routine work, these materials, rich as they

are, "from the larger point of view of the advancement of science are in large measure neglected." He therefore proposed:

(1) That the unapproached wealth of books and materials at Washington for research be made available to advanced students of the country having the baccalaureate degree and one year of graduate work or its equivalent.

(2) That the scientific staff at Washington be authorized as part of its official duties to give a limited amount of instruction.

(3) That an administrative division be established, the duties of which shall be to make the facilities of Washington known and to guide students to them. If desirable, this division may be made a part of the National Bureau of Education.

(4) That a student completing his work for a doctorate at Washington be granted his degree from the institution from which he came.

(5) That existing universities cooperate in this work with the departments at Washington.

In urging "A national university as related to democracy," President Baker, of the University of Colorado, expressed himself as distinctly favorable to the idea. He said:

In Germany higher education is related to the State; in America the problem is far more difficult—to relate it to democracy. A few educated men at the head of affairs can value science and culture; pure democracy, in its formative stages, may be shortsighted, fail to see its own true goal, and even be suspicious of attaining it * * *. If we are to gain the respect of older civilizations, we must show that democracy is not superficial; that it has a high ideal of government; that it can be fertile in scholarship, and especially in appreciation of its value and service. The "glory that was Greece" will never be ours unless our ideal is built of spiritual elements that have given leading nations their place in history. If we have a boasted new form of State and society—the body—we must see to it that we have also the new humanism and the new idealism—the soul. If we have a unique civilization, if we have a peculiar mission, then let us have an unequaled center of learning at the very heart of our national life, adequate to reveal that life to ourselves and to the world.

Proceeding to a discussion of ways and means, President Thomson, of Ohio State University, took up the question from the practical viewpoint of getting something done. He showed how little appeal the cause of education tended to make to Congress as compared with other causes. He thought that the first fundamental problem, therefore, was to get into the national consciousness a true conception of the value of a great national graduate institution that should utilize for educational purposes the resources of the Government already accumulated and increasing every year. A second problem was to secure a consensus of intelligent opinion as to the general scope and purpose of such a university. A third step would be to agree upon a bill that should include a comprehensive plan of operation, followed by a campaign of education which would convince Congress of the far-reaching importance of the national-university idea.

VIII. BENEFACTIONS.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE PEABODY FUND.

Private benefactions to American education approximated \$25,-000,000 during the academic year 1911-12. This amount represents simply the amounts actually reported as paid. Many other gifts have been announced, some of the more significant of which will be found summarized below.

The last of the Peabody Educational Fund, originally created in 1867, was allotted for distribution during the year. Particularly noteworthy among the final gifts is that of \$500,000 to the George Peabody College for Teachers at Nashville, contingent upon the raising of a million dollars by November 1, 1913. In their announcement the Peabody trustees explain the great work which they believe Peabody College is destined to accomplish, and incidentally pay a merited tribute to the efforts of the South in behalf of education:

The Southern States, with a courage and self-sacrifice rarely if ever equaled, are devoting every year from 35 to 40 per cent of the total amounts raised by them by taxation to the education of both races, wisely recognizing that this is their best hope for the future.

Disbursements from income of the Peabody Education Fund had amounted to over \$3,500,000 on September 30, 1911. With the ultimate disposal of the principal in 1913, this fund will have yielded for educational purposes more than \$5,500,000.

CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING.

Mr. Carnegie transferred a million dollars to the trustees of the foundation in December, 1911, and a similar sum in May, 1912, bringing the total of benefactions up to \$13,000,000. With accrued interest the total endowment amounted to nearly \$14,000,000 at the close of the year ending September 30, 1912. The trustees reported an income of \$676,486.56 for the year. They expended \$634,496.89, of which \$441,984.64 was for retiring allowances and pensions in the case of accepted institutions, \$128,438.39 for similar payments to individuals, \$36,949.31 for expenses of administration, and \$27,124.55 for educational investigation and publication.

GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD.

At the meeting in May, 1912, the General Education Board authorized the contingent distribution of \$700,000 among five colleges: \$250,000 to the George Peabody College for Teachers, at Nashville, for the establishment of the Seaman A. Knapp School of Country Life; \$100,000 to Beloit College, in Wisconsin; \$100,000 to

Coe College, at Cedar Rapids, Iowa; \$50,000 to Macalester College, at St. Paul, Minn.; and \$200,000 to the University of Rochester, at Rochester, N. Y. Except in the case of Peabody College, where the gift is made part of the million dollars to be raised, the grants were contingent upon the raising by the institutions of a like amount. In addition to these sums, \$210,000 was set aside for three purposes: For demonstration work in agriculture in the Southern States, for professorships of secondary education in the State universities of the South, and for negro education. Other conditional gifts by the board were: Allegheny College, \$50,000 toward \$200,000; Lake Forest College, \$50,000 toward \$400,000; Whitman College, \$125,000 toward \$500,000.

MILLION-DOLLAR ENDOWMENTS.

The extent to which endowment and income estimates for higher institutions have risen in recent years is interestingly indicated in current budgets. The income of many institutions of higher learning is now at a figure that would have been considered a substantial endowment but a few years ago. The College of Physicians and Surgeons, affiliated with Columbia University, seeks an endowment of \$7,000,000. Princeton University desires a further endowment of \$4,000,000 in order to provide additional income to meet the present annual deficit in the budget. The alumni of the University of Pennsylvania suggest \$10,000,000 as the goal of their efforts. These are typical. A number of institutions, aside from those usually considered among the wealthy institutions of the country, are engaged in raising one million dollar funds. The following institutions have either completed or are attempting to complete such a fund: Brown University (the second within a short time); Trinity College, Hartford; Trinity College, Durham, N. C.; Western Reserve University, Cleveland; Goucher College, Baltimore; and Smith College, Northampton, Mass.

OTHER BENEFACTIONS ANNOUNCED.

Other notable contributions to education, available or provided for, are reported as follows:

Albion College, \$100,000.

Beloit College, \$50,000 from Mrs. Rufus H. Sage, of Chicago, to endow a chair in English.

Caldwell College, Kentucky, \$100,000, raised by trustees and alumnae.

University of California, \$500,000, from the late Mrs. James K. Sather, of Oakland, for building and endowment, including a campanile and chimes (this is a final statement of various sums separately announced); bequest of E. V. Cowell, \$750,000 for gymnasium,

athletic field, etc. (not available for seven years); \$100,000 from Mrs. Carrie M. Jones, to endow scholarships for young men.

Catholic University of America, \$500,000 from the Knights of Columbus.

Chicago University, from Julius Rosenwald, \$250,000 for woman's gymnasium and buildings of geological, geographical, and classical departments (conditional upon the raising of twice the amount by the friends of the university).

Colorado College, \$100,000 from Mrs. A. D. Juillard, for a new gymnasium, memorial to her father.

Columbia University, \$100,000 for cancer research, from August W. Openhym, of New York (in addition to the Crocker bequest for a similar work amounting to \$1,500,000); \$50,000 for engineering research in memory of William R. Peters, jr.

Hamilton College, anonymous gift of \$100,000 for new library.

Harvard University, \$1,800,000 for freshman dormitories to be built this year; Mrs. Russell Sage to donate a new freshman dormitory to be called Standish Hall; \$125,000 for a professorship of banking, from E. C. Converse, of New York; \$1,000,000 from P. A. B. Widener, of Philadelphia, for the new library building, a memorial to H. E. Widener, a *Titanic* victim; \$100,000 from Dr. Arthur T. Cabot, the university to be the ultimate beneficiary of his estate, valued at \$500,000; the university also ultimately to receive \$500,000 from the Morris Loeb estate, to be used for the advancement of physics and chemistry.

Holy Cross College, \$100,000 building (Beavan Hall), from Bishop Beavan and priests of the Springfield diocese.

Johns Hopkins, \$220,000 from James B. Brady for a hospital.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, \$2,500,000 from an anonymous donor, to be used for the development of the institute at the Cambridge site.

University of Michigan, \$200,000 from Regent Hill.

Middlebury College, \$200,000 fund.

Mount Holyoke, fund of \$552,000 raised by Alumnæ Association in honor of the seventy-fifth anniversary.

University of Nevada, \$150,000 from Clarence H. Mackay and Mrs. John W. Mackay for the School of Mines.

New York City College, \$75,000 to \$100,000 from Adolph Lewisohn for a stadium, the city having provided the land.

New York University, \$90,000 from Mrs. John S. Kennedy, for the Cornelius Baker Hall of Philosophy.

Northwestern University, \$250,000 from James A. Patten for the study of tuberculosis and its prevention.

Oberlin College, \$500,000 raised "by friends of the college."

Peabody College for Teachers, \$100,000 from J. P. Morgan.

University of Pennsylvania, \$80,000 by bequest of Mrs. Lucy Wharton Drexel; \$65,000 from a committee of the alumni, the beginning of a fund to be used in establishing scholarships and in making it possible to keep at Pennsylvania professors who might be offered larger salaries elsewhere.

Princeton University, \$300,000 for the Graduate College, in addition to the \$500,000 previously given.

University of Rochester, \$500,000 from George Eastman.

Transylvania University, \$250,000, of which \$50,000 was from the General Education Board.

Trinity College, Hartford, \$200,000 from J. P. Morgan for library and administration building.

Villanova College, \$100,000 for new building, from Bernard R. Corr, of Philadelphia.

Whitman College, \$200,000 from several donors.

Worcester Polytechnic Institute, \$50,000 from Mrs. H. D. Brown.

Yale University, actual benefactions about \$1,000,000 for the year; university is made residuary legatee of the estate of Dr. Francis Bacon, valued at several hundred thousand dollars, fund to be used in the undergraduate department for the benefit of needy students; similar fund of about \$400,000, known as the McPherson fund; \$75,000 from A. C. Dunham for a school of electrical engineering; \$500,000 to \$600,000 from Henry O. and Mary F. Hotchkiss, bequest for Sheffield Scientific School; from C. D. Borden, \$250,000 without restriction.

Another large educational bequest that has recently become available is that of the late R. N. Carson, of Philadelphia, amounting to \$6,000,000, to be used for the Carson College for Orphan Girls.

The accounts of the executors of the will of the late John S. Kennedy, whose death occurred in 1909, show that the following amounts have been paid out in bequests for educational purposes: Presbyterian Board of Aid for Colleges and Academies, \$1,661,031; Columbia University, \$1,984,013; New York University, \$829,634; Robert College, Constantinople, Turkey, \$1,552,994; Charities Organization for School of Philanthropy, \$829,245. In addition to these amounts the New York Public Library received \$2,340,554 from the Kennedy estate, and the Metropolitan Museum of Art \$2,493,622.

The foregoing is by no means intended as a complete list of all announced benefactions to American education, or even those of a certain size. It is worthy of note that many institutions receive gifts of comparatively small amount in themselves that in the aggregate make considerable sums. A statistical summary of receipts from private benefactions is given in Volume II, page 298, of this report.

IX. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.**NEW OFFICIAL ARRANGEMENTS.**

International interchange in the field of education continues to expand rapidly. Among newer professorial exchanges should be mentioned that between the Universities of Chicago and Paris, to begin in the fall of 1913, and to take place in alternate years. At the University of Wisconsin, Eugen Kühnemann, well known in this country for two previous visits on an exchange basis, held the first appointment to the new Carl Schurz professorship. In Holland funds have been raised for the establishment at Columbia University, New York City, of a Queen Wilhelmina professorship of Dutch history, literature, and language. The Japanese interchange, under the Carnegie Peace Foundation, began auspiciously with the visit of Dr. Nitobe, president of the First Higher College of Tokyo, who spent about six weeks at each of the following American institutions of learning: Brown University, Columbia University, Johns Hopkins, University of Virginia, University of Illinois, and University of Minnesota.¹

REGULAR EXCHANGES.

Among regular exchange professors on existing foundations the following are to be reported for the year 1912-13: Kaiser Wilhelm professor at Columbia, Felix Krueger, professor of experimental psychology in the University of Halle; Theodore Roosevelt professor at Berlin, William M. Sloane, Seth Low professor of history in Columbia University; French visiting professor at Columbia, Henri Bergson, professor of philosophy in the University of Paris; German exchange professor at Harvard, Rudolph Eucken, professor of philology at the University of Jena; French exchange professor, Emile Légouis, professor of English at the Sorbonne; Harvard exchange professor at Berlin, Dr. Charles S. Minot, of the medical school; Harvard exchange at Paris, Prof G. G. Wilson, of the department of government.

OTHER ACADEMIC VISITORS.

Apart from the regular exchanges, there have been many important academic visitors from abroad during the past year. Julius Petersen, of the University of Basel, is professor of German literature at Yale University for the academic year 1912-13. Prof. Jacques Hadamard, of the College de France, gave instruction in mathematics at Columbia in the autumn of 1911. Prof. Ludwig

¹ See p. 619 of this report.

Sinzheimer, of the University of Munich, a prominent German economist, comes to the University of Wisconsin for the second semester of 1912-13; while Prof. Richard T. Ely, of Wisconsin, goes to the University of London. Prof. Gilbert Murray came over from England to aid in the revival of Greek as a school and college study, in which Amherst College is taking a leading part. Dr. Guenther Jacoby, of the University of Greifswald, spent several months inspecting departments of philosophy and psychology in American universities.

The Germanistic Society of New York has been instrumental in bringing a number of prominent German scholars and literary men to this country, among them Dr. R. W. Drechsler, of the Amerika-Institut, Berlin; Prof. Erich von Drygalski, of the University of Munich; and Prof. Edward Engel, of Berlin. Prof. Wilhelm Paszkowski, who, as head of the bureau of information at the University of Berlin comes in contact with many Americans who go to Germany for study, was in this country in the spring of 1912 and made a tour that included many of the important centers of learning in the United States.

A distinguished group of foreign scholars was present at the formal opening of Rice Institute, including: Prof. Rafael Altamira y Crevea, of Madrid, Spain; Prof. Hugo de Vries, of Amsterdam, Holland; Prof. Emile Borel, of Paris, France; Prof. Sir Henry Jones, of Glasgow, Scotland; Prof. Sir William Ramsay, of London, England; and Prof. Vito Volterra, of Rome, Italy.

A tour of peculiar interest to Americans was that of Prof. Caspar René Gregory, of the University of Leipzig, said to be the only American scholar holding a regular professorship in a German university. As the guest of Chicago University and other institutions Prof. Gregory made an extended lecturing tour in the United States and Canada.

THE PRUSSIAN EXCHANGES.

Influential as these professorial visits between the United States and other nations may be they can hardly be any more so than the exchange of teachers between Prussia and the United States which takes place every year under the auspices of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching: Both in this country and in Prussia the exchange teachers are given an unusual opportunity to see at first hand the educational conditions. For the year 1912-13 10 American teachers have been assigned to Prussian schools and 7 Prussian teachers to American schools and colleges.

The American teachers, together with the institution from which they come, their subjects, and their assignments in Germany, are as follows:

M. F. Beeson, Meridian College, Meridian, Miss. (English), Victoria Gymnasium, Potsdam; E. M. Briggs, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans. (Latin and German), Spandau; P. E. Bryan, Roxbury Tutoring School, New Haven, Conn. (English), Bismarck-Oberrealschule, Stettin; E. G. Fischer, Michigan Agricultural College, East Lansing, Mich. (English and modern languages), assignment not announced; J. A. Lee, High School, Malden, Mass. (English and modern languages), Realgymnasium, Stettin; S. A. Leonard, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis. (English), Oberrealschule, Danzig; Kemp Malone, Technological High School, Atlanta, Ga. (English and German), Realgymnasium, Erfurt; J. W. Norman, Howard College, Birmingham, Ala. (mathematics, Latin, and Greek), Oberrealschule, Potsdam; T. E. Steckel, Tome School for Boys, Port Deposit, Md. (modern languages), Kaiser Wilhelm Realgymnasium, Berlin; W. B. Stephens, Holderness School, Plymouth, N. H. (German and sciences), Gymnasium and Realgymnasium, Kolberg.

The Prussian teachers, with their assignments to the United States, are as follows: Anton Applemann, Munster (modern languages), Boston High Schools, Boston, Mass.; Erwin Gsell, Siemens Oberrealschule, Charlottenburg (modern languages), Worcester Academy, Worcester, Mass.; Karl Guntermann, Kgl. Gymnasium, Husum (English and history), Philips Exeter Academy, Exeter, N. H.; Heinrich Keidel, Kgl. Berger-Oberrealschule, Posen (German and history), University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.; Wilhelm Kopas, Realprogymnasium, Gnadenfrei (English, French, and religion), Tome School for Boys, Port Deposit, Md.; Otto Michael, Hohenzollernschule, Schoneberg (modern languages), Horace Mann School, New York City; Max Müller, Kgl. Gymnasium and Realgymnasium, Thorn (English and French), Philips Academy, Andover, Mass.

OTHER INTERNATIONAL VISITS.

In the summer of 1912 a party of 350 American teachers toured Germany under the auspices of the German-American Teachers' Association. Prof. H. H. Fick, of Cincinnati, headed the party. At the meeting in Berlin the speakers were: Dr. Busse, of New York, on "The teaching of German in the United States"; Director Joseph Winter, of New York, on "The future of the German language in the United States"; and Prof. Emil Cramer, of Cincinnati, on "Co-educational schooling in America."

Forty foreign geographers, guests of the American Geographical Society of New York on its sixtieth anniversary, paid a visit to this country in the late summer and fall of 1912, spending two months in travel through different sections of the United States. In connection with the Seventh International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, held in Washington in September, 1912, many distinguished

foreign scientists and educators, who came over for the sessions of the congress, took the opportunity to visit American educational institutions.

At the Congress of Associated British Universities, in London, during the past summer, the following guests from the United States were present by special invitation: Dr. George E. McLean, formerly president of Iowa State College; President Frank L. McVey, of the University of North Dakota; Hon. Andrew S. Draper, commissioner of education for New York State; and Dr. Kendric C. Babcock, of the United States Bureau of Education.

The United States will be the meeting place of at least two world congresses of educational import in 1913. The Fourth International Congress of School Hygiene is to be held at Buffalo, N. Y., in August, 1913, and the Eighth International Congress of Students (Corda Fratres) will be held at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., during the same month.

THE COSMOPOLITAN CLUB MOVEMENT IN GERMANY.

In speaking of the international movement in Germany, which has assumed large proportions during the past year, Edwin D. Mead, of the World Peace Foundation, calls attention to a new development growing out of the cosmopolitan clubs: He writes:

The exchange professorships at Berlin, the international influence of such men as Prof. Lamprecht and Prof. Ostwald at Leipzig, and the rapid extension throughout all Germany of the new Society for *Völkerverständigung*, inspired and controlled largely by professors in the various universities, have undoubtedly done much to affect the thought and feeling of the great student body; but it is really a young American scholar, Dr. George W. Nasmyth of Cornell University, carrying on his higher studies in Germany, who has given the direct impulse leading to the organization in several universities of international clubs like those already existing in some 30 of our own American universities. Young Nasmyth was the leading spirit in the great Cosmopolitan Club at Cornell, which now has 300 members; and carrying his enthusiasm to Germany, he prompted the organization of an international club among the Berlin students, which quickly attained a membership of 200. Similar clubs have been established through his initiative in Leipzig, Munich, and Gottingen; and recently there was held in Gottingen a general convention of students from all of these clubs to discuss the various aspects of the international movement and perfect plans for larger activities in the German universities, in several other of which efforts looking to the formation of international clubs are already under way.

ASSOCIATION FOR THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF STUDENTS.

The Association for the International Exchange of Students, an organization designed to aid students in one country who wish to study in another, held its first conference in London, June 27-29, 1912. This conference was devoted to a report and discussion of the three years' preliminary work that has been done. Among Ameri-

can representatives present at the conference were: B. F. Kurtz, California; F. L. McVey, North Dakota; E. B. Greene, Illinois; Capt. Horgarrd and Prof. D. C. Jackson, of Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Prof. T. W. Edmondson, of New York. The American Government was represented by William Phillips, of the American embassy. The Bureau of Education was represented by Dr. K. C. Babcock. Many American universities are cooperating in the plan. At the conference emphasis was placed on the idea that the students to be aided by these tours are those really anxious to work; "idlers and globe-trotters disguised as students are weeded out at once," it was announced. Lord Strathcona is president of the association and Hon. Herbert W. Crees the honorary secretary.¹

THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.

The year 1912 marked the tenth anniversary of the Rhodes Scholarship Foundation. The book by Prof. Parkin, who is in active charge of the administration of the trust, shows that the exchange has not yet passed the experimental stage. Particularly in respect to the United States, the scholarships are still of somewhat uncertain status. What Prof. Parkin says on this subject is of distinct interest to Americans:

The problem of devising a satisfactory system, generally applicable for the election of scholars, has presented greater difficulties in the United States than elsewhere. The reasons for this are various. For one thing, the 48 States and Territories to which the scholarships are assigned differ greatly in the degree and completeness of their educational organization. In a few States the universities can stand comparison in endowment, equipment, number of students or professors, and range of intellectual interest with the best of the Old World; in others the agricultural college or technical institution is only beginning to be developed into a State university with broader teaching aims. In some an admirable system of elementary schools leads up to the university; in others it is still difficult to get the thorough preliminary training necessary for real university work.

A further complication is introduced by the extraordinary number of collegiate and university institutions which have the power to grant degrees, and do this on standards and courses so various as almost to defy reliable comparison between the scholars they turn out * * *.

In a few States the development of higher education is still largely under political control, and is subject to political influences. In one case a State election swept away, as the result of a party victory, the whole committee of selection, consisting of the leading educational men of the State. Under such circumstances, the only course open to the trust was to take the selection of the scholars into its own hands until the conditions were radically changed.

With regard to the athletic provision, which Cecil Rhodes made one of the features of his bequest, Prof. Parkin says:

Certain well-defined conditions have made it difficult to apply in some communities the athletic tests suggested by Rhodes, if at the same time due regard

¹ Address: Caxton House, Westminster, London S. W., England.

is paid to other essential interests of the scholarship scheme. In the universities and colleges of the United States athletics have become a highly specialized side of student life. Instead of thousands of men taking an active part in the college sports, as is the case at Oxford and Cambridge, or the hundreds of boys with whom it is compulsory in the great English public schools, the interest of the games is concentrated upon a very limited number of men who compose the college teams. The pressure brought upon these teams to maintain the athletic reputation of their institutions is very great, and success is pursued with an energy very unfavorable to other work and in something closely akin to the professional spirit. I have been constantly told by educational authorities in the United States that college athletics were not favorable to the production of the all-round man whom Rhodes evidently had in his mind. In a less degree circumstances somewhat similar are met with in some of the colonial communities.

CHINESE STUDENTS AND THE REVOLUTION.

An interesting light on the development of international student relations is shown by the following statement of the former minister from China:

Most of the leaders of the revolution either received their education or got their ideas of republicanism from America. Dr. Sun, the originator of the revolution, got much inspiration from the United States, where he sojourned so many years and where he found not only complete safety, but sympathetic encouragement, while a price was on his head. The Hon. Mr. Tang Shao-yi, our great peace commissioner, was one of the 120 young men who first came to America some 30 years ago. The Hon. Dr. Wu Ting-Fang, at the age of 78, who is well known in America, is often called a Yankee. Then we find in the revolutionary government at Nanking the Hon. Dr. Chin-Tao Chen, minister of finance, and the Hon. Chung-Hui Wang, minister of foreign affairs, who are graduates of Yale. And so down the list are a large number of American-educated students in the Revolution. That is not all. In the assembly it was also the American-returned student who held the rudder. The first chairman of that representative body, for instance, was the Hon. Mr. Chao S. Bok, a graduate of New York University; and the vice chairman, who was also the ablest speaker of the House, was the Hon. Mr. Chengting Wang, another graduate of Yale. Then there were scores of others from American universities, such as Harvard, Chicago, Wisconsin, Illinois, and California, who played important parts in the revolution. In the Provinces as well we find the American-educated students in every center of activity, with their sleeves rolled up to their elbows, working in true Yankee style.

The handful of young men who received their education from America have already shown the Chinese people, and the world as well, what they have learned from their colleges. What is more significant is that which may be expected hereafter from the hundreds and hundreds of Chinese young men now found in every important educational institution in the whole United States. For it is in America that we have the largest number of students in any single foreign country outside of Japan; and it is also here that the young Chinese learn the American push and the business spirit. They always remember their universities and colleges with gratitude. These memories have done them good, and in return they have done credit to their alma mater.¹

¹Ching-Chun Wang. China's Revolution and Its Effect. N. Amer. Rev., Feb., 1913, pp. 200-201.

CHAPTER II.

EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION IN 1912.

By JAMES C. BOYKIN,
Editor, Bureau of Education.

CONTENTS.—Legislative conditions in the several States.—State boards and officers.—County boards and officers.—Municipal school boards.—School finances.—Business methods.—School boards.—School buildings.—Teachers: Examination and certification; salaries and tenure; pensions.—Normalschools.—Compulsory attendance.—Child labor.—Transportation and consolidation.—Textbooks.—Play grounds.—High schools.—Agricultural and industrial training: Laws for the rural uplift; schools of agriculture and the industries.—Addendum: Higher educational institutions; professional schools; professional practice; schools for special classes; welfare of children; dependents and delinquents.

LEGISLATIVE CONDITIONS IN THE SEVERAL STATES.

The legislatures of 13 States were in session during the year 1911-12, namely, Arizona, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Virginia. In but few of them were the enactments of more than passing importance. In Arizona and New Mexico the sessions were the first since the admission of those States to the Union, and the legislation in them covered a wide field; although the Territorial laws continue in effect after admission until repealed or superseded, many considerations demand that each State upon assuming the political *toga virilis* shall overhaul and furbish its code.

Arizona.—In Arizona an extra session was added to the regular legislative term in order to accomplish all that was desired. Practically an entirely new educational code was enacted in a single bill; and in addition a stringent child-labor law was adopted, and a free textbook law and a pension law were enacted that are remarkable for their simplicity and originality.

New Mexico.—The legal achievements of New Mexico were not so comprehensive as those of Arizona, but they were numerous and valuable nevertheless. The provision of a reserve fund, following the requirements of the State constitution, was, under the circumstances, an act of real statesmanship. The purpose of the fund is to equalize school privileges throughout the State, and the means by which that end is accomplished is worthy of more than passing notice. The situation there will be discussed more fully on a subsequent page.

Louisiana is the only State other than Arizona in which a general law was passed amounting to a comprehensive revision. Apparently it was primarily for the purpose of consolidating and simplifying existing laws, and that result was well accomplished. But it did a great deal more. It abolished several State boards of an auxiliary character, centering their functions in the State board of education; it increased the dignity and responsibility of the parish school boards; it gave New Orleans a new plan of school government; it introduced the budget system of finance; and, most important of all, it provided a thorough and well-considered system of teachers' examinations and certificates under State authority.

Kentucky.—In Kentucky at least as much was accomplished as in any other of the older States, and the activity of the legislative committee of the State educational association must be credited with a large share of the responsibility for the result. This committee was constituted in June, 1910, and proceeded actively to investigate the needs of the school system. A series of excellent suggestions was prepared and submitted to the two convocations of county superintendents in 1911. After full discussion and mature deliberation a report was presented to the full meeting of the association in June, 1911, and it was unanimously adopted. Unquestionably it represented the sense of the teaching profession in the State, and its influence is unmistakably visible in the bills that finally passed.

New York.—The situation in New York in 1912 was in marked contrast to that of the two previous sessions. In 1910 the "education law" was revised throughout in connection with the general revision of the code. The result was not wholly satisfactory to the officers of the State education department, and in response to their wishes another revision was enacted in 1911. The work was thoroughly and carefully done, and, the same officers with the same policies being in charge, little was desired of the legislature of 1912.

New Jersey.—In New Jersey, too, unusual productiveness in 1911 was followed by a decrease in the number of important bills passed in 1912. In this case, however, there was no lack of activity, and the reduced output did not result from the prevalence of serenity and quiet. A series of laws passed in 1911 provided a reorganization of the State board of education, and in effect a complete readjustment of the relations between the State and the local school authorities. A far greater degree of centralization was contemplated, and in order to attract a man of the highest type to administer the new system a salary was provided for the new State commissioner of education which is greater than any other State school officer in the United States receives.

Unexpected difficulties were encountered in the accomplishment of some of the reforms that were conceded to be desirable, and natu-

rally there was strong opposition to some of the changes in organization. Naturally, too, the following session of the legislature, that of 1912, was marked by strenuous attempts to undo, at least in part, the work of its predecessor. In one particular the attempts were successful, and the provision for uniform examinations for graduation from the grammar school was so changed as to be unrecognizable. In other respects, however, there was no lessening of centralization, and the new law relating to county superintendents seems in reality to strengthen the authority of the State.

Massachusetts.—A number of useful bills were passed by the Massachusetts General Court, but none of them was of striking character. The incident that excited most interest outside the State was in connection with the appropriations for the Massachusetts Agricultural College. In his inaugural address the governor discussed the relation of the State to higher education, and spoke with gratification of the excellent character of the universities and colleges under private control in the State. These, in his opinion, make it unnecessary to maintain a university at State expense, as most of the other States do; but he recommended the establishment of a system of State scholarships, and suggested the annual appropriation of \$50,000 in order to maintain 400 of them.

Subsequently a bill was presented to him after passing both houses, in which \$250,000 was appropriated for the development of the agricultural college. He declined to sign the measure, and returned it with a special message in which he reiterated his views concerning scholarships. He held that expansion of that institution would be equivalent to the establishment of a State university, contrary to sound policy. He expressed the belief that the agricultural college should devote all its energies and its appropriations to agriculture, and that instruction in the liberal arts should be left to established private institutions. His arguments, however, did not prevail, and the bill was passed over the veto.

Rhode Island.—Little that concerned the schools took place in the Legislature of Rhode Island in 1912. There is some relation, of course, between the extent of a State and the volume of its legislation, and Rhode Island and Delaware would not be expected to be as prolific in laws as New York and Texas. The demands of individual communities with diverse interests necessitate many local laws, or laws that are essentially local in their application, though expressed in general terms; and naturally from many minds come many ideas. Other things being equal, therefore, a half million people, may be expected to continue satisfied with a given condition of affairs longer than 5,000,000 people would be. But diversity of interests and the law of probability based on numbers are not the only factors that determine the relative number and extent of legal changes. A more

important factor is the length of tenure in administrative offices, and most important of all are habit and tradition. A State superintendent elected for a two years' term is in office during only one session of the State legislature. He feels either that the time is too short for him to do more than to continue in the ways of his predecessor, whether good or bad; or else he realizes that he must do a great deal, now or never, to impress his individuality upon the school system, and incidentally to justify his own reelection. The latter course is attempted oftener than the former; human nature is constituted that way. The result is inevitable. Laws are urged, and often enacted, which are not based upon mature experience and consideration; and the next superintendent will have the opportunity of recommending the necessary amendment or repeal. Undeniably this process serves to keep many legislatures busy; and that is the least of its evils.

Rhode Island is preserved from periodical changes due to this cause, but the paucity of its educational legislation is due more to the customary manner of drafting laws and to the traditions of the people. The laws that are passed are usually brief, and general in their terms. The State board of education or the local school committees are permitted to supply the details. Changes in those details may be made with little formality to suit changing conditions, and the result is a system that is markedly elastic and effective.

Virginia.—In Virginia the new laws for education were few and unimportant. There was no lack of friendliness on the part of the legislators, but there seemed to be no need of radical amendments. Perhaps the most important act was that relating to taxation upon the rolling stock of railroad corporations. By that law 75 per cent of the receipts of such taxes is apportioned to the districts through which the roads respectively pass. This will add materially to the income of some rural districts.

In the remaining States, namely, Maryland, South Carolina, Georgia, and Mississippi, laws were enacted in great number and variety. Some of them were of considerable importance, but nearly all were of local application only. To such extent does the habit of special legislation prevail in those States that one who considers only the general laws included in the published codes fails to gain a correct understanding of the educational situation.

Georgia.—The ease with which local laws may be secured in Georgia obviates the need of general legislation in most cases. If a good idea is advanced and finds favor in a certain community, that community may readily, as a rule, secure legislative consent to its adoption, and need not disturb other communities in doing so. There are over 80 districts organized under laws of their own choosing, and nearly every modern idea in constructing a separate school system may be

found in some one or more of the special laws of the State. Many of the organizations are excellently constituted, and constant improvement is manifest throughout the State as good ideas prove their worth in practice. Four counties have been organized as units, each under a special law, one having been added to the number in 1912.

Maryland.—In Maryland there are numerous local laws, but they do not take the form of separate district organization as in Georgia. Outside of Baltimore city, the county plan of organization prevails throughout the State, and this plan is not disturbed. But it is common for individual counties to be excepted from general laws, and for special laws to be passed affecting single counties. Some of them even instruct county officers as to their action in certain particulars which are ordinarily left to local determination.

In addition to numerous local provisions three laws were enacted that were of general interest. The first was a comprehensive child labor law, extending fourfold the statute previously in force; the second was a well-drawn compulsory attendance law, applying to Baltimore and to those counties whose school commissioners adopt it, six counties being excepted; and the third was an appropriation of \$600,000 at once and \$50,000 annually for a school of technology in connection with Johns Hopkins University.

South Carolina.—The final distribution of the fund of the abandoned State dispensary system was an event of interest in the legislative session of 1912. The act in favor of consolidation of schools and transportation of pupils marks a distinct advance; and the change of the date upon which new county superintendents assume their duties has a significance and importance not apparent on its face.

Mississippi.—Three general measures were urged by the State superintendent of public education, and all were enacted, namely, (1) authorizing transportation of pupils at public expense; (2) empowering county boards of supervisors to issue bonds for the erection of school buildings in rural communities, and to levy taxes to provide fuel, etc.; and (3) making additional appropriations for agricultural high schools. All these laws will be discussed in a subsequent paragraph.

STATE BOARDS AND OFFICERS.

The composition and duties of State boards of education present a constantly recurring problem. No matter how constituted, it is difficult for any set of men, meeting at intervals of about three months, to keep in touch with the details of a complicated and extensive system of schools, and to act effectively at practically a moment's notice upon highly technical matters. The difficulty is vastly increased when the board is expected to perform purely executive functions. If the members convene in a perfunctory way and merely

follow the recommendations of the superintendent, the feeling is apt to prevail that they are useless. If, on the contrary, they assert their authority and venture to dictate to the trained educator in the office of State superintendent, who is in constant contact with the schools and is far more familiar with their needs than the board members could possibly be, they are almost certain to arouse antagonism and create friction. The situation is usually far more delicate for State boards than for local boards, because the latter are in closer touch with the schools under them and they have more direct power over the superintendents whom they employ.

Whatever the cause, it is a fact that the State board is a part of the educational machinery which it is difficult to adjust and keep in adjustment. There are few States in which suggestions for change are not made from high quarters with considerable frequency, and that, too, without regard to the type of board that prevails. For example, the superintendent of public education of Louisiana desires to exchange the board appointed by the governor of that State for one whose members shall be elected by the people;¹ the governor of Kentucky proposes² to supplant the ex officio board of Kentucky with one whose members shall be in part laymen and in part professional educators, most of them to be appointed by the governor. It is by no means uncommon to note the demand in one State for a certain type of organization, when some other State is moving at the same time to "reorganize" a board of substantially the type desired by the first.

Several instances of reorganization were reported in 1911, but no radical changes were made in 1912, unless the Arizona board may be considered changed because it is different from the former Territorial board. As it is now constituted it consists of the governor, the State superintendent, the president of the State university, the principals of the two State normal schools, and a city superintendent, a high-school principal, and a county superintendent appointed by the governor.

In Louisiana, notwithstanding the superintendent's suggestion, no change was made in the manner of selection, but one member was added because of the increased number of congressional districts, one being appointed from each district. The terms of appointed members in New Mexico were reduced from five to four years, and the reverse of the process was enacted in Rhode Island, for in that State the terms were fixed at five years, with the provision that the terms of one-fifth the members should expire each year.

An important change was made in Louisiana in abolishing the State textbook commission, the State board of examiners, and the

¹ In his Annual Report for 1910-11, p. 45.

² In his message to the legislature, 1912.

State board of institute managers. The functions of all of these boards were transferred to the State board of education. Undoubtedly the change will make for simplicity and for directness in handling public business. The actual work in each case was necessarily done by subordinates; and the board of education can furnish direction for all of them and thus avoid the multiplication of boards and the consequent diversity of ideas. The board of education will employ "an examining committee" and a State director of institutes, and no substantial change of method is necessarily implied by discontinuing the superfluous organizations.

The State superintendent.—While there is frequent discussion of the proper constitution and functions of the State boards of education, there is never any doubt of the value of the work of the State superintendent. The importance of the office constantly increases. New duties and responsibilities are steadily added, and larger salaries are offered to attract and hold men of the caliber to make the position in fact as well as in name the head of the State educational system. But it is still unfortunately true that in many cases the superintendents of the large cities and the heads of all the important institutions in a State receive considerably higher salaries and have far more certain tenure than the man who is nominally their official superior.

A still more anomalous condition appears in several States in which supervisors of elementary schools, of rural schools, or of high schools, named by the State superintendent and presumably acting under his direction, receive several hundred dollars annually more than the State superintendent. Their salaries, however, are not paid by the several States, but by the General Education Board.

Such anomalies must soon disappear. The tendencies are all in the direction of increasing the dignity, responsibility, and salary of the State superintendent. The legislation of 1912 contained many instances in point. For example:

The commissioner of education of Massachusetts was authorized (ch. 80, Feb. 12) to approve bills for expenditures from funds placed under the direction of the board of education.

The State commissioner of education of New Jersey now appoints all the county superintendents of that State (ch. 367). He is charged with the administration of the law (ch. 336) providing higher education for the blind at State expense. He was also directed (ch. 152, Mar. 25) to determine and certify to the educational qualifications of applicants for admission to medical colleges.

The State superintendent of public instruction of Virginia was charged with similar duties (ch. 237, Mar. 13) in connection with medical colleges.

In Kentucky it was enacted (ch. 13, 1912) that the State superintendent of public instruction shall act as special State inspector and examiner of all schools in the State which receive public funds; for this service he shall receive \$1,500 in addition to his present salary; he shall appoint two assistants at \$1,000 each per annum, with their expenses of travel; he shall be allowed also \$2,000 additional for clerk hire. In a vague and general way the superintendent probably had already the power given to him by this law, but it is now definite and specific, and the additional help will enable him to perform his duties in an effective manner not possible hitherto. And the \$1,500 added to his salary will prove to be a difference that is very real.

COUNTY BOARDS AND OFFICERS.

Legislative activity in behalf of county superintendents proceeds at an even greater rate than for State superintendents. There is need for it. In few States is the recognition accorded to this office commensurate with its importance; but the prospect is continually brightening. The action of the New Jersey Legislature in fixing the salaries of all county superintendents at \$3,000 (ch. 367, Apr. 2) is the most encouraging event of the year in this connection. Yet that salary is no more than is necessary to hold men of sufficient ability to do the work acceptably. That city is poor indeed which does not pay its superintendent as much. High-school principals often receive more, and New York City pays that salary to its elementary-school principals. The problems of the county superintendent are as perplexing and his need of ability and maturity is surely as great as any of these. Furthermore, the physical difficulties with which the county superintendent must contend are incomparably greater than those which any city official ordinarily meets.

The county superintendent in New Jersey is in reality a State officer, since he is appointed by the State commissioner of education and his salary is paid from the State treasury. He must, however, have been a resident of the county at least three years. This provision was clearly inserted to retain the local element in the control of the schools and to avert the possibility that a nonresident commissioner might fill the State with nonresident superintendents not in sympathy with local views and needs. It is probably not difficult to find men in any county of New Jersey who are worth \$3,000 as superintendents. Nevertheless, it is contrary to the principle that is constantly gaining favor, that the best man available should be selected for every position regardless of boundary lines.¹

Next to New Jersey, Kentucky has taken the most commendable step of the year in relation to county superintendents. It was enacted (ch. 117, Mar. 18) that to be eligible to the office candidates must

¹ By a later law county superintendents may be chosen from any part of the State.

hold a State diploma or certificate, or else must be personally examined at the State capital before the election, the examination being equivalent to that for a State teacher's certificate. Superintendents shall devote their entire time and attention to the duties of the office, and their salaries shall be not less than \$600 nor more than \$2,500. Assistants may be provided in the discretion of county boards of education. Kentucky's minimum seems pitifully small as compared with New Jersey's \$3,000, but the rate of advance was no greater in the one State than in the other, and the difference means even more to the southern than to the eastern State.

Arizona, too, provided substantial increases for her county superintendents, and according to the new schedule (ch. 93, May 21) two will receive \$2,400, two \$2,000, and two \$1,800. Only two will receive less than \$1,000. Assistants are provided for some of them, and traveling expenses are allowed to all.

In South Carolina several special laws extended the terms of officers of certain counties from two to four years. An act (No. 386, Feb. 20) applicable to all but 19 counties provided that the terms of all superintendents should begin July 1. Such laws as these, none of them applicable to the entire State, have in the aggregate greatly improved the conditions of supervision in South Carolina in the past few years.

The last-mentioned law, simple though it seems, is expected to be especially beneficial. In effect, the old law, under which the superintendent's term began January 1, practically barred teachers from the superintendency. For them election to that office meant idleness for a half year before the beginning of supervisory work, and for another half year after the completion of the term. They could not accept a teaching position pending the assumption of the superintendency, and they could not find one vacant in the middle of the school year upon leaving the county office. It is said that teachers refused, therefore, to offer themselves as candidates for the work in which their services were especially desired. A different attitude on their part is expected in the future.

In Georgia it was enacted (Laws 1912, p. 180) that the terms of all county superintendents shall begin simultaneously January 1, 1913, and continue four years. Evidently the difficulties experienced in the neighboring State are not feared in Georgia, for it may be presumed that a mid-summer date might have been specified if it had been considered desirable.

The parish school boards in Louisiana appear (Act No. 214) to have gained authority at the expense of the parish superintendents. The changes, however, do not seem to have been intended to deprive the superintendent of his legitimate functions, but rather to relieve him of certain nonprofessional duties and to make the county board a

more active factor in school affairs. The board upon its own initiative now fixes the number and salaries of teachers; repairs, equips, and furnishes buildings; sells property, etc. All these formerly required the recommendation of the superintendent. Nomination of teachers is still the duty of the superintendent, but by a vote of two-thirds of the full membership the board may elect a teacher without the nomination of the superintendent. Furthermore, the superintendent himself may be removed by a two-thirds vote of the board, that power having been transferred to them from the State board of education.

MUNICIPAL SCHOOL BOARDS.

The time is rapidly passing for city boards of education whose members are elected as representatives of the several wards. When it is considered that few legislatures were in session, an unusually large number of city boards were reconstructed during 1912. In only two of them was the local-representative plan retained.

New Orleans afforded the most conspicuous instance of reorganization. Formerly the board of school directors of that city consisted of 17 members, 1 elected by the voters of each of the wards of the city. By the new law (Act No. 214) the number is reduced to 5, and they are elected from the city at large for terms of four years. Three members constitute a quorum.

The boards of the four Kentucky cities of the second class—namely, Lexington, Covington, Newport, and Paducah—were reorganized by the same act (ch. 137). The plan adopted for Louisville in 1910 is closely followed. A board of education is provided for each city, consisting of five members elected from the city at large. A superintendent will be elected first for a two-year term, and if reelected it will be for four years. He may be removed for cause by a vote of three members of the board, and he may be dismissed at any time by a vote of four members. A business director will handle the material affairs of the schools and will act also as secretary of the board. The tax for schools must be not less than 3 mills.

The citizens of Salem, Mass., were permitted (ch. 559) to determine by ballot whether to retain their old charter or to choose one of two new forms of government, the first consisting of a mayor and a council of seven members, and the principal feature of the second being a commission of five members. The school provisions were the same in both the new forms; they were characterized by a school committee of five, elected at large.

Similarly, the question of the composition of the school committee was presented (ch. 341) to the qualified voters of New Bedford, Mass. The proposal contemplated a school committee consisting of the

mayor and six elected members. If the act is adopted, the school committee will have entire control of the school buildings and grounds, an important change in that city.

With certain exceptions, city boards of education in New Jersey will in future be appointed by the several mayors, and they will consist of five members each in cities of fewer than 45,000 inhabitants and of nine members in larger cities.

New Mexico also provided for small city boards, and it was enacted (ch. 43) that the board of education of each incorporated city shall consist of five members elected at large. Formerly the members of all such boards were elected as ward representatives.

Providence and Woonsocket, R. I., are the two cities in which the old method of selection is retained in new laws. In the former city (ch. 863) three members will be elected from each ward, and in the latter, two will be elected from each of four districts.

A number of small cities and towns in Georgia received new school charters in 1912, and a great variety of forms of organization were represented. One county, Clarke, with Athens as its capital, was organized as a single district.

SCHOOL FINANCE.

No other feature of legislation affords a more interesting study than the appropriation bills and related measures. In them the characteristics of the several States appear conspicuously; they tell the story of progress in terms that leave no doubt, for one may be sure that he sees there the bare facts, not an expression of hope. They are not by any means prosaic reading when their full significance is appreciated, when they are studied from year to year, when each State is compared with the others. Pathos may be often seen ill-concealed in stilted legal phraseology; and sometimes bits of grim humor appear, which may or may not have been so intended by the legislators. The appropriation bills of 1912 contain even more than their share of interesting provisions, and the temptation is strong to dwell upon them at greater length than the limits of this paper will permit.

The final act of South Carolina's effort to control the liquor traffic by handling it herself is written in the law (No. 566) ordering the distribution within 30 days of the last money remaining in the dispensary fund. The history of the experiment is as exciting as a French romance, but the end was placid to a degree: The schools received 63 cents per pupil.

In Maryland it was provided (ch. 113) that before the proceeds of the State school tax are apportioned, \$4,000 per annum shall be withheld and delivered to the Garrett County school board. The reasons are set forth at length: Garrett is the largest county in the

State; mountain ridges divide the population, and render school facilities more expensive than in other counties; the tax rate required to maintain schools for $7\frac{1}{2}$ months is therefore unduly great. So the other counties generously contribute to her aid before receiving their own share.

In other forms the same thing is done in many other States. The dispensary money in South Carolina, just mentioned, will be used in part for a similar purpose. The provision of a reserve fund in the constitution of New Mexico, and the legislation of 1912 (ch. 51) following its requirements, have been already mentioned briefly.

The conditions of New Mexico are well known; the population is small and scattered; a large proportion of the inhabitants are Indians or of Mexican descent, and many of them speak Spanish exclusively; large areas are practically rainless, and the possibilities of agriculture are limited. Educational progress is therefore attended with unusual difficulty.

In 1910 there was no school in 84 districts; 6 others had only one month of school, and 258 had two or three months. The average for the Territory was $4\frac{1}{2}$ months. The need of effective aid for weak districts is therefore imperative, and the provision made is more generous than any other State has seen fit to allow. Perhaps it is more than will be needed. One-half the entire current school fund, consisting of the receipts from a State tax of $1\frac{1}{2}$ mills and the income from the permanent fund, is set aside as a reserve fund. It is distributed according to their needs to those districts which can not maintain school for 5 months with the maximum tax of 15 mills. The maximum to be allowed to any schoolroom is \$300, allowing 1 room to each 50 children, or fraction thereof, in a district.

Mississippi also has appropriated a fund of \$5,000 annually (ch. 5) to be used in aid of weak districts which are unable to maintain school for 4 months.

It is not practicable to present in a paper like this an analysis of the regular appropriations, profitable though it would be. It may be said, however, that increases are general all along the line. Higher institutions in many States have fared particularly well. In no case has a lack of friendliness to educational interests been reported.

BUSINESS METHODS.

Laws constantly appear forbidding public officers to contract debts in excess of their resources. Several of them were enacted in 1912. They have a good effect to be sure, but it is ordinarily very difficult to enforce the penalties provided. In South Carolina, for example, notwithstanding the prohibition in the law (sec. 1777), 342 of the 1,916 districts in the State reported deficits aggregating \$64,590.

In Arizona and Kentucky new restrictions were imposed upon the administrators of certain State educational institutions, but the restrictions of Arizona were in effect nullified by the provision that the appropriations may be exceeded if necessary to provide food and clothing for inmates. This is, of course, a beneficent qualification; its only weakness is that a wise treasurer or trustee, if his funds are short, will be careful to spend his cash for other purposes which he considers necessary, and postpone his bills for food and raiment to a more convenient day.

The Louisiana Legislature approached the matter from a different direction and prescribed the budget system for all school organizations (Act No. 214). The budget of revenues shall in no case include any sum which is not reasonably certain to be received, and the budget of expenditures shall never exceed the budget of revenues. The budget of expenditures shall show anticipated expenditures in detail, and no item of indebtedness not included in the budget shall be paid by the treasurer under penalty of personal liability, enforceable by any taxpayer before any court of justice. No provision is made for a revision of the budget during the year, except in relation to receipts from unexpected or contingent sources not included in the original budget. This system has manifest advantages, but perhaps it will be modified in practice, either with or without formal legislative sanction, so that sums not required for certain items may be applied to unforeseen contingencies.

SCHOOL BONDS.

As usual, a large proportion of the legislation of 1912 was in relation to school district bonds. Much of it was of the petty character that the bond issues demand to an extraordinary extent. Nothing else in the field of school administration presents so many perplexities and causes so many aggravating controversies as the issue and sale of bonds. These evidences of debt exist as negotiable securities for the life of a generation, and they are usually sold and resold many times before the day of final redemption. A thousand contingencies arise during the life of a series to affect their status. The officers who issued them are almost invariably dead or out of office from some other cause before the bonds mature, and the issuing district itself may have been reorganized out of existence in the meantime. It is essential, therefore, that every minute detail of the law be observed in order that payment may be assured beyond the possibility of a doubt. Otherwise the "securities" are not secure, and they are without value in the market.

A law authorizing any bond issue is always drawn with care, and all the steps of procedure are set forth as clearly as possible. Nevertheless, the probability of error on the part of some one is very great,

for not all school officers are trained in the minutiae of the law and of finance. If not observed and corrected in time, an error, apparently trivial though it may be, usually causes a series of vexatious delays or controversies, frequently leading to the courts or requiring additional legislation.

The practice prevails in North Carolina and Virginia of lending certain moneys of the State permanent fund to school districts under proper conditions. That plan seems to be an excellent one. It avoids the pitfalls that surround the sale of bonds in open market, and in a most effective way it simplifies the problems of financing schoolhouse construction. There is never a question of the validity of a loan, and there is no doubt of the sufficiency of the security, for the State board of education is in a position to control both sides of each transaction if necessary. The plan may be commended for wider adoption.

The use of bonds as an aid to schoolhouse construction is a recent development in the Southern States. Even yet there is no legal authority for such action in Florida, and in other States the provisions are very inadequate. The reason for this is to be found in the manner in which the public school system developed in that section. In the beginning of the public school systems the States frequently subsidized private schools, and that practice, which still exists in some of the States,¹ often avoided the necessity of building at public expense. The districts were not accustomed to provide schoolhouses by taxation, and naturally did not feel the need of bond issues in the earlier stages of their development. In recent years, however, all the devices of school administration have been utilized more freely in the South, and the advantages of distributing capital expenditures over a series of years have been generally realized.

In Georgia "local tax districts" were authorized (No. 537, p. 176) to issue bonds, if approved by a majority of the qualified voters. The Mississippi Legislature went still further and authorized (ch. 159) county boards of supervisors to raise money on bonds for building schoolhouses in rural districts.

Another provision of the latter law affords an interesting side light upon the customs of many parts of the South. It permits county supervisors to levy a tax in any district, when requested to do so by the majority of taxpayers thereof, for the purpose of providing fuel and paying incidental expenses. It has been customary in the past to raise money for such purposes by collecting an incidental fee from each pupil, and a long step in advance is indicated by this law, even

¹ In Maryland the act of Apr. 11, 1912 (ch. 583), authorized the county school commissioners of Frederick County to pay \$250 annually to the Sisters of Charity of St. Euphemia's School for educating colored children. In Georgia, in 1911, the schools were operated 140 days; the "free term" was 114 days (40th An. Rept. Dept. of Education, 1911).

if its terms do not presage general adoption. It will probably be many years before the incidental fee is entirely a thing of the past in the South.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

Satisfactory laws for issuing bonds must necessarily wait on complete provision for local taxation. This is still a desideratum in some of the Southern States, but the energy with which the problem is attacked promises early improvement.

State funds may ordinarily be used for teachers' salaries only; it is expected that buildings and material equipment shall be furnished by local action. The degree of effectiveness of local tax laws, therefore, is shown most clearly in the condition of the schoolhouses. And it is in this that the rural schools show their greatest deficiency.

State appropriations to aid local boards in building and improving houses have proved to be a stimulus of great value. The experience of Alabama with an annual appropriation of \$67,000 was discussed in the Annual Report of 1911. A similar favorable result for a like appropriation is reported from South Carolina. The sum of \$20,000 was made available in February, 1912, and the entire amount was exhausted by the middle of April. Nearly all the buildings for which State aid was given, 89 in number, were in country districts, and none of them would have constructed without that stimulus. Nevertheless, the amount contributed by patrons and local trustees was 14 times as much as the State appropriations.¹

A novel addition to the machinery of school administration is reported from Kentucky. By the act of March 11, 1912 (ch. 30), upon the application of 250 householders in any county, the county judge must appoint a "building school commission" of four members. This commission shall direct the construction and equipment of all schoolhouses erected in the county. All matters relating to the purchase or condemnation of sites are confided to them, and they will handle all moneys received from the sale of school bonds. Plans for buildings, however, must be approved by the county board of education, and title to property is vested in that body.

The movement for wider use of schoolhouses continues to progress. Kentucky is the latest State to authorize such use of buildings, and the act of March 13, 1912 (ch. 67), opens the doors to lawful assemblages of educational, religious, agricultural, political, civic, or social bodies. The existing law to similar effect in Massachusetts was broadened (ch. 320) to permit the collection of admission fees. In every instance the means of egress must be approved by an inspector of public buildings before any schoolroom or hall may be used for such assemblages.

¹ 44th An. Rep. State Supt. of Education of South Carolina. 1912, p. 27.

TEACHERS.

EXAMINATION AND CERTIFICATION.

State systems of certification were provided in the two general school laws passed during 1912, namely, in Arizona (ch. 77) and in Louisiana (No. 214). The methods are substantially similar in both. Question papers are prepared by a committee of examiners and sent to the county superintendents, who conduct the examinations and return the papers to the State examining committee. Those persons grade the papers, and all certificates are issued by State authority and are valid throughout the entire State. This is the plan which experience has shown to be the most effective; it has been adopted in all the States in which there has been serious legislation upon the subject within recent years.

Formerly examinations were conducted in Louisiana by "parish examiners," and certificates were good only in the county of issue, unless the papers were examined and the certificates indorsed by the proper officers of another county. In addition to the parish certificates, there was a series of State certificates conducted by the State board of examiners.

The new law of Louisiana upon the subject (No. 214) does not specify the subjects of examination for the several grades of certificates, but directs the State board of education to determine them. It is unusual to give this power formally to the State board, but it is nevertheless a proper provision, since it tends to elasticity and therefore to good administration. In reality it adds nothing to power already given, for the nature of the questions asked and the manner of rating actually determine the worth of any certificate, notwithstanding the lists of subjects incorporated in the laws.

SALARIES AND TENURE.

It is not often that a maximum is fixed for teachers' salaries, but that has been done in Kentucky for rural elementary schools. Chapter 117, Laws of 1912, provides that not over \$70 a month and not less than \$35 shall be paid for such service, and that the amount paid shall be based on and regulated by the qualifications of the teacher and the number of children in attendance in proportion to the school population. Regulations by which salaries shall be graded must be promulgated by the State board of education.

All this has the aspect of novelty, and it will be interesting to observe the operation of the law. No appropriation is provided by which salaries may be raised to comply with the regulations if local funds are not sufficient, but there is a clause authorizing county boards to combine State and county funds. It is not clear whether that affects the salary question; but it is a fact that State funds may

be used for teachers only. It will be remembered that in Pennsylvania, and perhaps in other States, a minimum salary is fixed and a State fund is used to maintain that minimum.

Several laws were enacted in Maryland providing minimum salaries in individual counties, and in all cases the amount specified was from \$100 to \$150 greater than the prescribed minimum for the entire State. All these laws provided that the county boards of commissioners shall levy additional taxes to cover the expense. Another law (ch. 138), general in its application (excepting Garrett County), reduced the number of pupils necessary to bring a school within the minimum salary provisions; now every white teacher of a school whose average attendance is 10 (instead of 15) or more shall receive at least \$300 per annum.

The climate of Arizona is well known to be favorable to persons afflicted with tuberculosis, and many teachers are included in the number of persons so affected who have gone to Arizona in search of health. Naturally, some of them have found places in the public schools. This, however, will no longer be permitted, and the law of March 16 (ch. 37) forbids the payment of salary to any person suffering with that disease. Periodical physical examinations are required at the discretion of the school board.

In relation to tenure of position, the paragraph concerning New Orleans, La. (Act No. 214), is the only new law of general interest that appeared during 1912. It provides that all teachers now in service shall be regarded as permanent employees, and none of them shall be removed except on written charges of immorality, neglect of duty, incompetency, malfeasance, or nonfeasance, of which he has been found guilty after investigation and report according to the regulations of the board of directors. Marriage of a female teacher, however, at once vacates her position. Appointments in the future shall be for one year, but after three years' satisfactory service the appointment shall be permanent.

PENSIONS.

Arizona.—To the new State of Arizona must be accorded the distinction of having a retirement law (ch. 95) that is by far the best in the United States. It is best, first, because it provides a reasonably adequate annuity, namely, \$600 a year; second, because it does not reduce salaries under the fiction of "assessments," but provides that all annuities shall be paid direct from State funds; third, because it is State wide in operation and avoids all controversies concerning the place of service and the proportion of individual pensions which certain districts should pay; fourth, because there is no complicated administrative machinery, the control of the entire matter being in the hands of the State board of education and the

superintendent of public instruction; and, fifth, because its simplicity and the absence of restrictions permit its application to any deserving case. Practically the only limitation is that the annuitant shall have served 25 years in the public schools of Arizona; all the rest is in the discretion of the State board of education.

No other law possesses all these good points in combination. In Rhode Island and Maryland the principles of State control and direct payments by the State are observed, but in neither State is the annuity so nearly adequate and in neither is such large discretion given to the administrative board. In any system and under any plan of retirement the judgment of some officer or of some board must finally decide who shall retire and when. Uniform policies are desirable in this, and the State board of education is the body upon which such decisions should logically rest.

Many existing laws provide that after a given number of years of service any teacher shall be retired upon his own application. Perhaps such a clause would improve the Arizona law. On the contrary, it may be said that many teachers are still able to render valuable service after 40 years' experience, and in such case the interest of the State should prevail over the wish of the individual. In any event, the board that decides fairly a disability case after 25 years' service may be trusted to decide as fairly upon the application of one who has served 15 years longer.¹

The Arizona statute requires that each claim for quarterly pension shall be approved by the superintendent of public instruction before payment. This is clearly for the purpose of guarding against possible imposition by persons retired for disability. All such laws must make some provision for the removal from the rolls of pensioners who have recovered from their former disability; and the State superintendent or the State board of education is presumably the proper authority to control the matter. Between the two there is little difference, inasmuch as the superintendent is the right hand of the board.

Virginia.—This matter arose in Virginia also during 1912, and it was enacted (ch. 329) that either the State board of education or the State board of health may examine a disability pensioner at any time, and shall examine each one at intervals of three years. If either board decides that disability no longer exists, the pension shall cease. There is no reason why the board of health should not

¹ A letter from Hon. C. O. Case, State superintendent of Arizona, dated Apr. 9, 1913, contains the following:

"The board of education at its meeting Sept. 7, 1912, granted the application of Misses M. A. Tyrrell, Mary E. Post, and Sue H. Summers to be placed upon the retired list after service of more than 25 years in the public schools of Arizona.

"An age limit of 60 or 65 years was urged by some of the legislators, but as the matter of retiring a teacher after the 25 years' service is optional with the board, it is not expected that any will be retired as long as their services are valuable to the State.

"Only the three applications have been made, each being a worthy subject for a position."

be asked for advice in such cases, and it would not be amiss, perhaps, to give to that board positive duties in making examinations desired by the board of education; but the alternative provisions of the Virginia law can not be expected to prove satisfactory. In effect, since either board may examine, neither must. Presumably a working agreement will be made by the two boards; otherwise the law must be amended to prevent duplicating examinations in some cases and omitting them in others.

Maryland.—The Maryland retirement law was amended in 1912 (ch. 135) so as to give the State board of education more direct control and a wider discretion in its administration. The board is authorized to waive the age limit of 60 years in extraordinary cases; and pensions in future will be paid by the treasurer of the board instead of by the State treasurer.

New Jersey.—Two pension systems have been established by laws of New Jersey and exist side by side. Both are State wide, but neither is properly a State system. One is based upon the assessment plan, with only nominal aid from the State treasury, although public officers are on the managing board; the other is purely local, each district being required to retire teachers on half pay after 35 years' service, 20 of which must have been in the district. It is significant that the latter system is rapidly developing. Formerly retirement depended on the application of the beneficiary, but by the act of March 13, 1912 (ch. 58), the local boards of education may retire eligible teachers without application.

It is not to be expected that the two systems will continue indefinitely, and it remains to be seen what form the inevitable consolidation will assume. It may be that a general State pension system is presaged by the act of April 1, 1912 (ch. 323), providing for the retirement on half pay of officers and employees of penal and reformatory institutions. This development would be an easy transition from the present conditions.

New York.—The New York law relating to pensions for teachers in State institutions was amended in 1912 (ch. 293), making it decidedly more favorable to its beneficiaries. The former age limits, namely, 70 years for retirement on application and 65 years on recommendation of a board of trustees, were removed. Service in teachers' institutes may count toward the 30 years' service required, and it is no longer necessary that 10 years' service shall immediately precede an application for retirement. Furthermore, the maximum allowance is fixed at \$1,000 per annum for teachers as well as for principals.

Local laws.—In addition to these laws of general application, retirement funds based principally upon assessments were established for Baltimore County, Md. (ch. 83), Alleghany County, Md (ch. 463), Louisville, Ky. (ch. 129). All were drawn along familiar lines.

A little out of the ordinary course of events, however, were the Maryland law (ch. 818) directing the county commissioners of Baltimore County to pay to Blanch Paxton Baldwin, "an afflicted ex-public school-teacher," an annual pension of \$200, and the law of the same State (ch. 45) authorizing the school commissioners of Washington County to pay Amanda Barr a pension of \$200 per annum. The preamble of the latter act explains that the beneficiary was a faithful teacher for 35 years, and was during that time totally disabled. She has been incapacitated for work since 1909.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

No new normal school was established in 1912, and excepting the usual appropriations, which seemed to be a little more generous than usual, there is little to record of legislation concerning them. The New Jersey Legislature did pass a bill (ch. 369) establishing an additional normal school, but failed to follow the act with an appropriation, and the act was necessarily a nullity.

An appropriation of \$126,500 was made (ch. 26) for the new normal college at Hattiesburg, Miss., and the institution should begin under favorable auspices. Further preparations were made for the removal of the Maryland State Normal School from its old site in Baltimore. The building commission was directed to sell the property of the school at La Fayette and Carrollton Avenues and to use the proceeds in the construction of buildings upon the new site. It was also authorized to raise \$600,000 by the sale of bonds for the same purpose.

In Massachusetts the normal schools received more than their usual share of attention. In addition to several bills of local importance relating to individual schools, a general act (ch. 79) was passed concerning the business affairs of all of them. Criticism has been directed in the past to the manner in which accounts were kept in some of the institutions, and in order to produce uniformity it was enacted that receipts from pupils for board and from all other sources shall be paid monthly into the treasury of the Commonwealth. All claims for services and bills for food and supplies shall be audited and paid as other claims against the State are paid. This means, of course, that all the financial transactions of the normal schools shall be handled in Boston.

The old question of whether it is the duty of the State to train teachers for service in cities again arose in Massachusetts, and the State board of education was directed to investigate and report whether the Boston Normal School should be transferred to the State.

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE.

Kentucky.—One of the important features of the report of the legislative committee of the Kentucky Educational Association was its insistence upon "an efficient compulsory education law." In this

respect different laws have governed the cities of the several classes and the common school districts. The acts relating to the municipalities have been improved from time to time, and seem to be reasonably effective; but in the rural districts there could have been little of compulsion that was worthy of the name. Even if the machinery of enforcement had been of the modern type, the compulsory term was too short to be of much value—only eight weeks.

The agitation initiated by the committee resulted in the passage of a law (ch. 96) requiring that attendance shall continue each year during the entire session of the public schools, but under it the compulsory period is from 7 to 12 years of age, instead of from 7 to 14 as before. Teachers are required to report to the district trustee promptly and regularly the names of parents who fail to send their children to school; and the school trustee shall prosecute the offending parents in the county court.

It remains to be seen whether this law will prove altogether "efficient," but it is a great improvement over the old statute, and the teachers' committee may count its passage as a distinct achievement. The principle of State-wide compulsion has been recognized, and it may be confidently expected that its application in detail will be made more and more effective as the years add experience in its operation.

Maryland.—Another "border State" attacked the same problem in an entirely different way (*Md. Laws* 1912, ch. 173). Maryland is no more ready for a full measure of compulsion than Kentucky, but the Maryland constitution does not prohibit local laws upon general subjects, as the constitutions of Western States generally do, and it is possible there to enact stringent laws applying to communities which desire them, exempting communities which desire exemption.

The difference between the two types of organization are well shown in the new compulsory laws of the two States mentioned. The Kentucky law is very moderate in its terms, but it applies to all the counties in the State; the Maryland law, on the contrary, is much stronger, but it applies immediately to Baltimore city only, exempts six counties outright, and is left optional with all the other counties. Adoption, however, will mean real enforcement, for attendance officers must be employed and no halfway measures will be tolerated; the law has a businesslike ring that argues well for its effectiveness.

Four counties had actually put the law in operation before November, 1912, and two others were planning to enforce it in 1913. The matter was still under consideration in five counties, three had not considered it at all, and three had decided adversely.¹

¹ Letter from Mr. B. K. Purdum, assistant State superintendent, dated Feb. 5, 1913.

CHILD LABOR.

Arizona.—When Arizona has become a manufacturing State like Massachusetts, a mining State like Colorado, and an agricultural State like Missouri, she will still be able to boast a child-labor law that meets every requirement of her complex civilization, and she need not amend her present law in the meantime. The act of May 13, 1912 (ch. 32), bears in every paragraph evidence not only of legal acumen, but of a thorough knowledge of the enactments of other States; it avoids the weaknesses and adopts the strong points of all of them; the occupations permitted or prohibited at the several ages are graded with the utmost nicety and with rare judgment, although many of them may not be seen in Arizona within the life of this generation; its methods of enforcement are ideal; the penalties are well adjusted to the gravity of each offense; and without hesitation or reservation it may be said that the newest State in the Union has a law to govern the employment of its children that is at least the equal of that of any other State in the Union. In short, Arizona enacted the "uniform child-labor bill" advocated by the National Child Labor Committee. It only remains to enforce it. Exactly 37 children under 16 years of age were employed in the industries of the Territory of Arizona in 1909.¹

Maryland.—An equally comprehensive statute, that is practically all new, was enacted in Maryland (ch. 731, Apr. 11). It was apparently homemade, but it, too, shows clearly the influence of the Child Labor Committee, and well it might, for the work of that organization is worthy of the highest commendation. One must go back to the days of Mrs. Mary H. Hunt in her prime to find a parallel to the extent and effectiveness of its legislative activity.

Like the Arizona law, the Maryland statute is ahead of the times, for it presupposes conditions in relation to compulsory school attendance that exist in only a few counties; but it is none the worse for that, and it may be instrumental in bringing about a wider extension of the attendance law. It may even be so enforced as to be in a measure a compulsory attendance law of itself. It is plainly the intent of the legislature to make it a real law and not a mere ornament to the statute books, for the appropriation for enforcement was increased from \$8,000 to \$12,000.

Mississippi.—The southern legislatures are more amenable to arguments for child-labor legislation than for compulsory attendance. In this history repeats itself, for the same was true of New England in the early days. A law was enacted in Mississippi (ch. 165, Mar. 16) that is excellent in many of its provisions, although it will probably be less effective in operation than it would be if special

¹ Census Report on Manufactures, 1909, Vol. IX, p. 40.

officers were provided for its enforcement. Nevertheless, it indicates an awakening public sentiment that will undoubtedly develop with the increase of manufacturing.

Mississippi, however, is still essentially an agricultural State, notwithstanding the boll weevil and the discouraging condition of the sugar market. The largest city in the State had fewer than 25,000 inhabitants in 1910, and only four others had more than 10,000. There are few child-employing industries in the State: 14 establishments manufacturing cotton goods, and 11 canneries, constitute nearly the entire list. The child-labor problem can not, therefore, be rated as of transcendent importance, and the law that was passed must be deemed a reasonable response to the demand that existed.

Massachusetts.—In the States that really have a child-labor problem the laws have developed, as a rule, to the point of effectiveness, and the legislation in them in 1912 was generally of supplemental character. Perhaps the most significant of the new enactments was the Massachusetts law (ch. 706) providing for a commission to fix the minimum wages of women and minors. It was provided also (ch. 96) that seats shall be furnished for women and children employed in manufacturing, mechanical, and mercantile establishments.

New York.—The legal hours of labor for minors employed in factories in New York were reduced (ch. 538) as follows: For males under 18 years of age and females under 21, maximum, 54 (instead of 60 hours per week, 9 (instead of 10) hours per day. Females under 21 shall not work before 6 a. m., nor after 9 p. m. It was also enacted (ch. 333) that every child who applies for an employment certificate shall be examined by a medical officer of the local board of health to determine the fitness of the applicant for the work he intends to do.

Messenger laws.—In the cities of South Carolina which contain more than 5,000 inhabitants it is now unlawful to employ any child under 14 as a messenger, or to employ any minor under 18 in that capacity between 10 p. m. and 5 a. m. (ch. 405). In Rhode Island no minor under 21 may be similarly employed during the same hours (ch. 814). The laws of Arizona and Maryland, already discussed in this section, include "messenger clauses" as a matter of course, similar in their purport to those of South Carolina and Rhode Island.

TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS AND CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOLS.

New Jersey.—What seems to be the most effective arrangement yet devised for handling the matter of transportation is included in chapter 141 of the Acts of New Jersey, 1912.

It will be remembered that at least three-fourths of all the money expended for public education in that State passes through the State

treasury. A county tax, uniform over the entire State, provides the sinews of the system. It is called the "State tax" and is paid into the State treasury and, although it is sent back to the counties from which it came, it is subject to apportionment by the county superintendent, who is really a State agent.

The new law provides that 75 per cent of the cost of all transportation of pupils shall be paid from the "State funds," and the necessary amount shall be withheld by the county superintendent before making the apportionment to the districts. The entire matter will be under the control of the county superintendent, for he must approve the necessity, cost, and method in every case.

In effect, therefore, transportation in New Jersey is a State and not a local matter. Under the direction of such highly qualified men as county superintendents are required to be; with favorable conditions of population; with level country and good roads; and with no lack of money for every proper purpose, it may be confidently expected that there will be developed in New Jersey a system of transportation without an equal in the country. It is difficult to imagine any important factor that is lacking for complete success.

Kentucky.—An adverse court decision in Kentucky was the cause of the complete cessation for a time of all transportation of pupils at public expense in that State. No constitutional objection was raised to the practice, but it was held that no action had been taken by the legislature that could be construed as authorizing any expenditure of public money for the purchase of wagons or for pupil transportation.

The objection was speedily met, and the act signed March 18, 1912 (ch. 117), left no doubt of the intention of the lawmakers. County boards of education were authorized to consolidate districts, and to submit to the voters thereof the question of levying additional tax for the purposes of transportation. It was provided that any funds available for local expenses might be used for transportation, whether specifically so stated or not.

South Carolina.—An act to provide for consolidated and graded schools (No. 497), which became a law on February 26, 1912, proved to be immediately beneficial and stimulating. By its terms any strictly rural district may receive from the State \$300 per annum if it maintains a well-housed and well-equipped school with 3 or more certificated teachers and at least 75 pupils enrolled. A district similarly equipped as to building and furniture, but with only 2 teachers and 50 pupils enrolled, may receive as State aid \$200 per annum. The State fund may in any case be used for transportation if the county superintendent approves the arrangements.

The total appropriation for this purpose was \$15,000, and it was apportioned almost immediately. Fifty-eight communities in 20

counties shared in benefits, and it was necessary to decline 42 other applications. The State superintendent is highly gratified at the result and desires at least \$40,000 for the same purpose in 1913.¹

Like results have followed a similar appropriation in Virginia, and the allotment for rural schools of 2, 3, and 4 rooms was increased in 1912 from \$25,000 to \$75,000 per annum.

TEXTBOOKS.

Men unfamiliar with the practices of others in handling long-standing problems, when confronted with those problems sometimes devise surprisingly direct means for attaining results that had previously been reached only through complicated processes. An instance of this has been cited in the teachers' pension law of Arizona, a State whose officers were without experience in the practical conduct of pension administration. Another instance equally striking may be found in the free textbook law (ch. 72, May 18, 1912) of the same State.

In a few concise paragraphs the whole knotty problem of textbook supply is solved at a stroke. The simplicity of the thing is such that one wonders after it is done why it had never been done before. The State board of education adopts a series of books for the entire State and buys them; the county superintendent orders from the board what his estimates show that his county will need, and he supplies the district trustees, who in turn supply the pupils. Payment is made from the State school fund before apportionment, and the books remain the property of the State. What could be more simple? There is no question of the prices to be paid by districts or pupils, no requirements for supply depots, no need of stern penalties for failure to use adopted books, no difficulty in enforcing the State course of study—none of those complications which produce almost endless chapters of laws every year. If free books are the proper policy, and if State uniformity is desirable, then Arizona has the ideal system.

PLAYGROUNDS.

The idea of directed play has so far received attention principally in those States in which the school systems have reached a stage of advancement which makes it possible to devote time and money to matters of the second order of importance. In the South the elemental needs still hold attention. More comfortable buildings must be constructed; more trained teachers must be secured; a longer school term must be provided; the negro must be more adequately instructed. All these require earnest work and money—a great deal more than the present resources furnish—and playgrounds must wait their turn. Besides, southern cities as a rule are not

¹ Report 1911-12, p. 25.

compactly built; in most of them there is no lack of vacant space for play, and the country is "the open country," indeed.

It is not surprising, therefore, to find that in the year under consideration all legislation for playgrounds was confined to the States of the East. None of the laws was of especial importance, for nearly all of them were supplemental in character. In Massachusetts, towns of over 5,000 inhabitants were authorized to vote to maintain one or more public playgrounds and to acquire land for the same (ch. 223); in New Jersey the mayors of certain cities were empowered to appoint municipal playground commissioners without reference to or confirmation by the respective city councils; in Rhode Island the city council of Providence was authorized to provide for a board of commissioners to manage the playgrounds of the city. All these laws are of the sort that come from time to time after an idea is well rooted. They are for extension and improvement of detail rather than for original establishment. On the other hand, in Maryland, a "border State," which as a whole is like the South in its sentiment and like the North in its prosperity, formal recognition was given to the playground movement by the provision that land may be condemned for playgrounds or for other school purposes, as well as for building sites. The maximum area that may be condemned for a school was fixed at 5 acres instead of 1 acre (ch. 532).

HIGH SCHOOLS.

New Mexico.—Except in New Mexico and Arizona there was no general legislation of importance in 1912 in behalf of high schools of the standard type. The New Mexico law (ch. 57) is of more than usual interest, for it is unique in some of its provisions. It contemplates the establishment of a county high school in any county of more than 5,000 inhabitants, upon the approval of the majority of the electors of the county. The control of each school is vested in the board of directors of the district in which the high school is located, but the county superintendent is an ex officio member. That board may levy a special tax not exceeding 2 mills upon all the property in the county and must use the receipts thereof only for the maintenance and operation of the county high school. The site and building must be furnished by the district. All children of the county who have completed the eighth grade may attend gratis. The course of study of every county high school must include manual training, domestic science, the elements of agriculture, and commercial science.

More than one county high school may be established in a county, and in that case the receipts from the special tax must be appor-

titioned between the schools on the basis of the number of pupils who attended at least half the regular sessions of the previous year.

Arizona.—The Arizona high-school law has little in common with that of New Mexico. In Arizona the district, not the county, is the unit. Any district with 200 pupils or more in average attendance may establish a high school, and two or more districts may unite for the purpose. The course of study must in each case be approved by the State board of education, and the qualifications for promotion from the eighth grade to the high school must be prescribed by the same body.

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

It is indicative of current thought that the topic which occupied the attention of legislators in 1912 more than any other was vocational training, in the form of either agriculture, the mechanical industries, or domestic economy. The "commercial branches," which received so much attention a few years ago, are rarely mentioned in recent laws, although they do appear occasionally as a further evidence that the typical American course is the resultant of many forces applied in the form of widespread "movements," each of which has exerted a permanent influence.

To trace these movements is to study the history of American education. In a measure they seem to recur in cycles, taking, perhaps, a different form at every appearance. While each is in the ascendant it fairly monopolizes the discussions in gatherings of teachers, fills the educational journals, and affects legislation both directly and indirectly. Education after the manner of Fellenberg at Hofwyl was a leading topic in the early years of the nineteenth century. The monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster followed hard upon its heels, and was the vogue for many years. Gymnastics held sway at the beginning of the second quarter of the century, and was followed in turn by manual labor schools, grading, physiology and hygiene, professional supervision, training of teachers, light gymnastics of the Dio Lewis sort. During the Civil War, naturally, no study was pursued so zealously as military drill.

Afterward came agricultural colleges, compulsory attendance, commercial education, the kindergarten, temperance instruction, Swedish gymnastics, manual training, nature study, Herbartianism, educational psychology, and many others. All were "fads" in the beginning, but nearly all became substantial realities in their permanent impress upon the country's schools. With us to-day in full vigor are vocational training in its several forms, and the Montessori method.

Agriculture has had its turn at least as often as any other subject. It was the principal feature in the schools of the Fellenberg type; it was the favorite pursuit in the manual labor schools, which were, in fact, inspired by Fellenberg's ideas; it was the prime purpose of the institutions established under the Morrill Act in imitation of the Michigan Agricultural College; and it now dominates the vocational education movement to such an extent that it is usually considered a thing apart. No branch is vocational to a greater degree than agriculture; the same considerations apply equally in the advocacy of training in agriculture and of training in the mechanic arts. Yet the agricultural side of vocational training shows such preponderance that in popular use the term "vocational" is usually applied to the mechanical industries alone. For the sake of convenience, agriculture is ordinarily treated as a matter entirely distinct from vocational education.

LAWS FOR THE "RURAL UPLIFT."

Agriculture in the schools is but a part of the general "rural uplift" movement, the manifestations of which are of common knowledge. It is interesting to note how that movement affected legislation in 1912, and how the general interest in the conditions of farming communities has brought forth measures for their amelioration. The most comprehensive action was taken in Maryland, where the legislature provided for a commission, to be known as the "Maryland Country Life Commission," to investigate the problems of country life and to suggest policies and legislation for the benefit of farmers (ch. 742). In this the Maryland Legislature followed the example of President Roosevelt in constituting the "country life commission," whose deliberations attracted so much attention a few years ago.

No other investigation of like scope was initiated in 1912, but a number of specific laws were passed which tended to accomplish the ends desired in Maryland. In Louisiana the "police juries" of the several parishes were authorized to maintain experimental farms, and also to appropriate money for demonstration work in cooperation with the representatives of the United States Department of Agriculture. In Massachusetts an appropriation was made to enable incorporated agricultural societies to offer prizes to children under 18 years of age for excellence of animals or crops grown, for stock judging, etc.

The United Agricultural Board of Virginia, which was constituted in 1910, was reorganized in 1912 (ch. 153). This board is charged with the duty of directing the "farm demonstration work" of the State, and it was originally composed of 11 members, 9 of

whom were State officers and members of State boards of Virginia, and 2 representatives of the United States Department of Agriculture. The number was reduced by the act of 1912 to 4, namely, the governor of Virginia, the State superintendent of public instruction, the general director of demonstration work of the United States Department of Agriculture, and the Virginia director of the demonstration work of the United States Department of Agriculture. The former law contemplated a division of the work between several State authorities, but all of it is now concentrated in the single board of small membership. Clearly the new law is in the interest of simplicity and effectiveness. The board will control or direct the expenditure of all funds available for farm demonstrations contributed by the State, the several counties thereof, the Department of Agriculture, and the General Education Board.

An interesting outcome of the increased attention to rural affairs is the development of a rural police system in a number of the States, similar to the Canadian mounted police and the Mexican rurales. Such organizations were provided in 1912 in New Mexico and in South Carolina. Although the system is not yet State wide in the latter case, many of the counties are included.

SCHOOLS OF AGRICULTURE AND THE INDUSTRIES.

In relation to schools of agriculture and the industries, there was marked activity in 1912, and important measures were passed in every legislature that was in session. New schools of secondary grade were specifically provided in Massachusetts (Bristol County and Essex County), New York (on Long Island), Maryland (Caroline County). In other States, of which Virginia is an example, increased appropriations resulted in new schools that were not individually named in the law. Existing schools of this type were strengthened by largely increased appropriations, especially in Georgia, Massachusetts, and Mississippi.

Massachusetts is impelled by the variety of her industries constantly to increase the variety of her vocational institutions. The educational officers and legislators are vigilant in recognizing each new demand as it appears, but it is often the pressure from the rear that forces Massachusetts to the front in nearly all lines of educational endeavor. The people have learned to put in the schools what they wish to appear in the State; better than the people of any other State in the Union they have learned the relation between education and life. In that is the explanation of the high standing of the school system of the State. A new instance of characteristic enterprise appears in Resolution No. 16, directing the State board of education to investigate the advisability and cost of establishing

and maintaining a State school for designing, modeling, and manufacturing silverware and jewelry. It is probable, therefore, that the prestige of priority in special schools, conspicuously established by the normal schools, art schools, and textile schools of Massachusetts will be maintained in a new class of institutions.

Rhode Island.—The New Jersey plan of paying from the State treasury half the cost of industrial training has found favor in Rhode Island. By the act of May 3, 1912 (ch. 845), any town which maintains day or evening classes for vocational industrial education, including instruction in agriculture and training in mechanic and other industrial arts, may receive from the State a sum equal to half the expenditure for the same. In addition, any town maintaining instruction in manual training and household arts may receive from the State one-half the cost of the apparatus purchased.

New Mexico.—The requirement of industrial subjects in the high schools of New Mexico was mentioned in a preceding section. In addition, the State board of education was authorized (ch. 52) to prescribe a course of study in industrial education for all public schools, to include domestic science, manual training, and agriculture.

The board was authorized also to include industrial training in the institute manual, and to require all teachers attending institutes and summer schools to pass an examination in one or more branches of industrial education. It was evidently expected that the State board would promptly act upon the authority granted it, for the same law directed—not authorized—the State superintendent of public instruction to appoint a State director of industrial education and to prescribe his duties. A salary of \$1,000 per annum was provided for this officer, to be paid from the State treasury; and in addition a fee ranging from \$20 to \$30 must be paid to him by each county which he visits for purposes of instruction. His traveling expenses will be paid by the State.

Arizona.—In this State vocational training was the subject of a separate law (ch. 45). Like many other new school laws of that State, the provisions are well conceived and well stated. Any high school properly located and well equipped for instruction in agriculture, mining, manual training, domestic science, or other vocational pursuits may be designated by the State board of education to maintain such courses. Half the cost, not exceeding \$2,500 in any one case, will be borne by the State.

Mississippi.—No less than 11 laws were enacted in Mississippi in 1912 relating to county agricultural high schools. Several of them related to individual institutions or to the temporary use of funds raised for such schools pending establishment, but 2 of them were of great value to all the schools as a class. By the first, counties were authorized (ch. 150) to issue bonds for the purpose of raising money

to establish agricultural high schools. By the second, the State appropriation was increased from \$1,500 to \$2,000 per annum to each school in which the number of boarding pupils exceeds 30, and to \$2,500 to each school in which there are more than 40 such pupils. Undoubtedly these two statutes will largely increase the extent and efficiency of agricultural instruction in Mississippi.

South Carolina.—One of the earliest incidents in the history of agricultural education in America was the bequest of Dr. John de la Howe, a native of Hanover, who left the bulk of his estate for the endowment of a farm school "for educating, boarding, and clothing twelve poor boys and twelve poor girls of Abbeville district." Five hundred acres of arable land, 1,000 acres of forest, and an endowment of \$42,000 were left to the institution. It was stated in Barnard's *Journal of Education*¹ that the school was put into actual operation in 1817, at Lethe, in Abbeville County; and the possession of farm, stock, and implements in 1854 was mentioned.

If the school was established as stated by Barnard it was not continued, for an act of the South Carolina Legislature (No. 572, Feb. 25, 1912) authorized the trustees of the estate to institute legal proceedings to determine their right to establish scholarships in Clemson Agricultural College and in Winthrop Normal and Industrial College. The preamble of the act states that it is impracticable literally to carry out the terms of the will. If the courts authorize that disposition of the funds, 12 scholarships will be established for poor boys at Clemson and 12 for poor girls at Winthrop. Thus, apparently, will end the career of "the first Fellenberg school in America."

Louisiana.—The transformation of the "Southern University," an institution for colored students located at New Orleans, was provided by Act No. 118. It is stated that the school has not been in satisfactory condition, and its complete reorganization is contemplated by the law mentioned. The newly constituted board of trustees is directed to sell the property of the institution in and near New Orleans and to purchase other property and erect new buildings in the rural section of the State. The purpose of the school will be henceforth to train colored teachers of industrial and agricultural subjects. A model school of agriculture and the industries, comprising at least eight grades, will be maintained in connection with the institution. All the teachers and employees must be negroes.

There appears to be some question as to the constitutionality of this law. The matter is in the hands of the courts at the time of this writing, and the contemplated changes have not been made.

Kentucky.—"The pressing demand for agricultural instruction and instruction in domestic science" is cited as the reason for an additional appropriation of \$50,000 per annum to the State Agri-

cultural College, of \$35,000 to the Eastern State Normal School, and of \$25,000 to the Western State Normal School (ch. 32). The need of such instruction was held to be so urgent that an emergency was declared, and the appropriation was made available immediately after the approval of the governor.

Another act (ch. 103) appropriates \$2,000 annually to the Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored Persons, "for training students in useful trades." No previous appropriation had been made for this purpose.

ADDENDUM.

In addition to the laws discussed in the foregoing pages, the following measures were enacted in 1912:

HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

Arizona.—Awards to each county one scholarship paying \$150 per annum to be used by holder for tuition, room, and board at University of Arizona (ch. 24). Board of regents of said university shall consist of a president and 7 members (instead of 3); governor and superintendent of public instruction shall be ex officio members (ch. 40).

Maryland.—Appropriates \$600,000 at once and \$50,000 annually to establish a department of applied science and advanced technology at Johns Hopkins University; said university shall maintain 129 free-tuition scholarships; one scholarship for each county shall provide tuition and living expenses (ch. 90). State board of education may prepare and publish annually a list of approved colleges and universities, and shall determine the standards for said approval (ch. 169). Appropriates \$5,000 annually to Blue Ridge College; said institution shall maintain one free scholarship for each senatorial district of the State (ch. 229). Constituting a commission to investigate conditions and possibilities of Maryland Agricultural College (Joint Res. No. 7).

Massachusetts.—State scholarships at Massachusetts Institute of Technology may be divided (ch. 168). Petitions relating to granting degrees shall be filed with the State board of education, which shall transmit the same to the general court with recommendations (ch. 481). Massachusetts Agricultural College may sell to its professors, to college associations, or to fraternities sites for buildings, conditioned upon right of the college to repurchase at option of trustees.

Mississippi.—Governor and State superintendent of education shall be ex officio members of the board of trustees of the university and colleges of Mississippi (ch. 169). Members of board of trustees of university and State colleges shall be appointed from the State at large (instead of two from each supreme court district); omits former provision as to occupation of members (ch. 170). Forbidding fraternities, sororities, and secret orders in all State institutions (ch. 177).

New Jersey.—No school or institution of learning shall confer any degree until the terms and conditions of the same shall be approved by the State board of education (ch. 315).

Rhode Island.—In cooperation with Brown University, the State board of education may provide postgraduate courses at said university in principles and practice of education, for the purpose of training superintendents and principals and teachers of high schools; appropriates \$5,000 for scholarships (ch. 839).

South Carolina.—Beneficiary students at State colleges are released from the obligation to teach if they become ministers (no. 338). One or two scholarships in Winthrop College from each county shall be reserved for applicants from rural communities (no. 389). Similar provision in relation to scholarships at Clemson Agricultural and Mechanical College (no. 390). Establishing 51 additional scholarships at Clemson College, to be awarded as prizes for meritorious agricultural achievement; value \$100 each per annum for board, etc. (no. 391).

Virginia.—State cadets at the Virginia Military Institute are relieved of the obligation to teach if they serve an enlistment in the National Guard of Virginia, or if they serve two years as engineers of the State highway commission (ch. 94).

PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS; PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE.

Kentucky.—Providing specific regulations for the practice of dentistry (ch. 95).

New York.—Medical schools shall not matriculate conditionally students who are deficient in academic preparation (ch. 141).

Virginia.—Revising and strengthening the laws regulating the practice of medicine and surgery; materially raises standards (ch. 237).

SCHOOLS FOR SPECIAL CLASSES.

Arizona.—The State board of education may provide care and maintenance of blind children under school age when parents are unable to care for them (ch. 9, spl. sess.).

Kentucky.—Name of Kentucky Institute for Deaf Mutes changed to Kentucky School for the Deaf; status changed from an eleemosynary to an educational institution (ch. 71).

New Jersey.—Medical inspectors shall report to board of health every pupil who is mentally deficient or who suffers from epilepsy; all such persons shall be deemed to be under the guardianship of the commissioner of charities and corrections (ch. 182). Higher education is provided for the blind at State expense at any college, university, or technical school of the State (ch. 336).

New York.—The State commissioner of education may extend the term of State pupils at certain institutions for the blind so as to include three years additional for a higher course of studies (ch. 223).

WELFARE OF CHILDREN; DEPENDENTS AND DELINQUENTS.

Arizona.—Any parent who fails to provide for his minor child or children shall be guilty of felony (ch. 64). Punishment of persons guilty of contributing to the dependency or delinquency of children (ch. 18, spl. sess.). The superior courts of the several counties shall have exclusive jurisdiction in all matters relating to dependent and delinquent children (ch. 63, spl. sess.).

Kentucky.—Creating a parental home and school in Jefferson County (ch. 106).

Maryland.—Women physicians shall make the required examinations of women and children in station houses in Baltimore (ch. 733).

Massachusetts.—The governor shall appoint a commission of three to investigate and report on the support of dependent children of widowed mothers (Res., ch. 82).

New Jersey.—No person shall furnish tobacco in any form to any minor under 18 (ch. 133). Causing or contributing to the delinquency of a child is a misdemeanor (ch. 163). Any county of the first class may establish a parental school; special attention shall be given to industrial training and agriculture (ch. 327). Creating a juvenile court in each county of the first class (ch. 353).

New York.—Any incorrigible child may be transferred from one institution to another better suited to care for him (ch. 169).

South Carolina.—The State Industrial School for Boys shall be supported directly by the State, instead of by the counties in proportion to the number of inmates from each (no. 298). The probate court of each county may assume care and custody of any neglected or incorrigible child (no. 429).

Virginia.—The State board of charities and corrections shall inspect and supervise all persons and corporations engaged in placing dependent children in homes and institutions (ch. 309).

CHAPTER III.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

By KENDRIC CHARLES BABCOCK,

Chief of the Division of Higher Education, Bureau of Education.

During the year covered by this report several currents of progress have gained strength and significance in that section of higher education concerned with graduate, collegiate, and technological courses, in contrast with secondary education on the one hand and professional education on the other. Many privately endowed institutions have increased in resources and in power to serve. Plans for improved standards of admission and graduation have multiplied and gone into full effect. The control exercised by States over higher and professional education within their limits has expanded in many places, and in no place diminished. In practically every State in which a legislature met in 1912 larger funds than in the preceding year were devoted to higher education. In several States the movement for better coordination of State-supported institutions took more definite form. That many States have been wasting money and losing efficiency through unwholesome and unsystematic development of their educational systems—or lack of system—has changed from a vague feeling to a positive judgment in favor of readjustment and reformation.

The method of attack upon this problem of coordination of the State's agencies of higher education has varied according to the acuteness of the need of the State, the zeal of the reformer, and political exigencies in the State. Education commissions, to study the conditions of higher education and to make reports and constructive recommendations, have recently been at work in Virginia, North Dakota, and Vermont, under official appointment, and in Colorado as a committee of the Colorado Teachers' Association. The Iowa State Board of Education has undertaken a radical readjustment or redistribution of functions among the three institutions under its control. The central boards of education in Mississippi and Oklahoma have undergone reorganization by legislative action, for reasons seemingly not altogether determined by educational considerations. Renewed discussions of institutional coordination have appeared in Montana, Washington, and Maryland.

In several States the normal schools have continued to press for larger scope and power to confer regular bachelors' degrees. The

junior-college idea has gained ground, and several new organizations doing college work of the first two years have been created.

CORRELATION OF STATE-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS.

In 17 States the universities comprise all of the State-supported higher educational work, with the exception of that done in the normal schools; in 9 States there is no State university, but a State agricultural and mechanical college; in 12 States there are both a university and an agricultural and mechanical college; and in 9 States there are three or more State-supported and State-controlled institutions. Seven States make appropriations in aid of privately endowed institutions, over which the State exercises no real control. While there are obvious advantages in having some of the work done by institutions in certain States distributed so that their special work may be in close contact with the interests which they serve, as in the location of the Michigan College of Mines and the Missouri School of Mines in the mining districts of those States, the disadvantages in the newer and poorer and more thinly populated States are well expressed by a prominent member of the faculty of an institution in one of these States:

The disadvantages of the system are duplication of work, diffusion of energy, insufficient financial support for any institution, the preponderance of local opinion and requirements, and consequent inadequacy in view of the educational requirements of the day.

The waste due to duplication of faculty, equipment, and buildings is frequently overestimated. While it may be temporarily noticeable in weak, new Commonwealths, which have distributed their institutions, the permanence of this defect in a given State system will depend largely upon the rapidity of the growth of population and the upward reach of the work undertaken. The work done at the present time by the three higher institutions supported by the State of Michigan, and the two supported by the State of Indiana, would not greatly gain in efficiency if it were all combined in each State in one place and under one management, while the economies would be confined to a few administrative salaries saved in the process of centralization. There is no loss of economy or of efficiency in carrying on in different places the work of the first year, or the first two years, of a liberal arts course or of courses preliminary to or fundamental to technological work, provided always that the faculty and the equipment of buildings, laboratories, libraries, etc., for the work of these two years are fully utilized. If there are 400 freshmen to be instructed, and if it is assumed that they are organized into 20 sections of 20 students each, in English, mathematics, physics, and chemistry, they would require space, instructors, many duplicate

pieces of apparatus, and duplicate reference books, all of which might advantageously be distributed among four or five places instead of concentrated in one place. If to these be added corresponding groups of sophomores, and the combination be constituted as a junior college, its demands in the way of administration, instruction, and living accommodations may be met in several localities quite as well as in one.

It is when specialized and technological work is begun in the second or third year of the usual course, when the services of high-salaried men and enormously expensive equipment are required, that the waste and inefficiency of plant inevitably appears. If investigation and research be carried on in an engineering experiment station like that maintained by the University of Illinois, the danger of duplication reaches its maximum. The popular demand for clear differentiation of function then rightly makes itself heard, a demand which is based not merely upon present conditions, but upon probabilities of future development.

The problem thus presented in several States is well illustrated by the State of Montana, which supports engineering work in three institutions. In the following table the first figures in each column represent the registration of engineering students by classes; the second figures in each column represent the total collegiate registration by classes:

Engineering and other students in Montana.

Institutions.	1909-10		1910-11		1911-12		Income, 1911-12.
	Engi- neering.	Total.	Engi- neering.	Total.	Engi- neering.	Total.	
University of Montana:							
Seniors.....	2	31	7	33	5	29	
Juniors.....	10	31	8	32	4	28	
Sophomores.....	7	38	7	34	8	45	
Freshmen.....	12	47	36	87	19	91	
	31	147	58	186	36	191	\$118,640
Montana State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts:							
Seniors.....	13	23	12	26	5	22	
Juniors.....	15	33	12	32	12	33	
Sophomores.....	10	37	18	47	10	37	
Freshmen.....	25	65	14	42	24	81	
	63	168	56	147	51	173	228,432
Montana State School of Mines:							
Seniors.....	3	11	13	
Juniors.....	10	12	8	
Sophomores.....	14	9	8	
Freshmen.....	13	15	11	
Special.....	40	47	40	
	10	12	14	
	50	59	54	
Total engineering students.....	144	173	141	
Total seniors and juniors.....	53	62	47	33,482

In these three institutions 18 persons are employed in engineering of some kind, as professors, instructors, or assistants, excluding teachers of chemistry, physics, mathematics, English, and modern languages, who would be wholly concerned with the instruction of freshmen and sophomores. The total number of students in the senior and junior group in 1911-12 was 47; if the sophomores be added, to include with certainty all those who are pursuing really technological courses, presumably under the instruction of the 18 persons just mentioned, the total for the three institutions would be 73. The merging of these three small groups of engineering students might give a body sufficiently large to insure enthusiasm, momentum, healthy competition within classes, and that professional spirit so highly important in training engineers to meet the exacting demands of the present and future.

Not the least of the advantages of unifying the work in engineering would be the increase of the salary scale of instructors thus made possible. The head of every technological institution in the country knows all too well the difficulty of attracting and holding highly trained and experienced men for the work of instruction as compared with the more active and more remunerative work in the world of commerce and industry. Except in rare and exceptional instances, the offer of a good salary is the first item in negotiations between a president or dean and a successful practicing engineer, and in a general way it can not be denied that the better the salary paid, the abler and more inspiring will be the man secured.

In yet another group of States, institutions have been permitted to develop many parallel courses leading to corresponding degrees, with little or no attempt to correlate the work. In some of these, in highly specialized courses like mining engineering and forestry, there is small prospect of gathering from the tributary territory more than enough students, in competition with older, richer, and more famous schools, to insure both impetus and inspiration to the work. In the State of Washington, both the university and the State college give courses in liberal arts, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, mining engineering, forestry, and pharmacy. The failure of the State college to publish a classified list of its students makes a detailed comparison such as that just given for Montana impossible without a study of the records of the institution. If the question of State control were to be dropped and a study made on a regional rather than a State basis, it would be necessary to note that 10 miles away from the State College of Washington, just across the State boundary, is the University of Idaho, which also gives courses in liberal arts, engineering (including mining engineering), agriculture, and forestry.

In the State of Oregon a similar condition exists in regard to the University of Oregon and the Oregon Agricultural College. By the act of March 17, 1909, the legislature provided for a board of five members called the "board of higher curricula." This board is appointed by the governor for a term of five years, the term of office of one member expiring each year; the board receives no salaries or fees other than actual expenses. Its powers are thus defined:

The exclusive purpose and object of the board of higher curricula shall be to determine what courses of study or departments, if any, shall be duplicated in the higher institutions in Oregon; to determine and define the courses of study in departments to be offered and conducted by each such institution.

The board is required to visit institutions, and is empowered to direct the elimination of duplicated work from any institution. At a meeting in April, 1910, this board made the following orders:

1. The departments of mechanical and mining engineering shall be confined to the State agricultural college.

2. In view of the fact that strong departments in civil engineering and electrical engineering are now established in the State agricultural college and the university, these departments shall continue to be a part of both institutions.

3. The school of education, as such, shall be confined to the University of Oregon; but this rule shall not be construed against the maintenance by the State agricultural college of a department of industrial pedagogy and the provision by this institution for such work in connection therewith or related thereto as may be necessary in training persons to teach industrial subjects in the common and high schools, in accordance with the provisions of the Nelson amendment of 1907 to the Morrill Act of 1890.

The department of economics and sociology and the school of commerce at the university and the course in commerce at the State agricultural college were continued. Having practically authorized the continuation of existing conditions, the board ordered that—

6. No new school, department, or course may be established in either the State agricultural college or the University of Oregon until the plan of such school, department, or course shall have been submitted to this board and have received its approval.

Since the exact meaning of the words "school," "department," and "course" here used was not defined, there is considerable doubt as to the effectiveness of this order.

Twenty-two States, in the organization of their agencies for higher education, adopted in the beginning the policy of distributing them geographically, each one independent in its organization and ambitions. Whatever may have been the original motives, it is the general agreement of wise and progressive leaders of higher education in the States at the present time that there is distinct advantage in combining in one institution the colleges of liberal arts and sciences and all the professional schools, including colleges of engineering and agriculture, thus forming a single university for a given State. The

arguments for separate institutions are less strong now, when each State is developing the work of its separate institutions on a college level, than they were 40 years ago, when the work of the land-grant colleges, for example, was chiefly that of the secondary school or work definitely directed to vocational ends.

The distribution and subdivision of what should be a unified function of the State as a whole has led inevitably in most cases to waste, duplication, undesirable competition for appropriations, and campaigning for students in order to get more appropriations. Not the least of the disturbing effects of this condition has been a confusion as to the standards which each institution should maintain, not merely with relation to the other parts of the higher educational system, but with reference to the secondary schools as well.

Small reason exists for a State to continue indefinitely the attempt to build up a strong high school in every good-sized town or county and at the same time to subsidize colleges which receive large numbers of their students from the first, second, or third year of the high school to continue secondary work in the college.

The need for readjustment is very real, and the possibility of actually uniting different institutions is too remote to be considered. Idealism must yield to practical procedure. During the past 10 years many experiments have been tried in the endeavor to remedy some of the admitted defects of the system now operated in many States. This process of experimentation has gone on without very clear conception of the educational and administrative problems involved, and certainly without the much desired divorcing of educational policies from political considerations. There can be no mistake in believing that the people of several of the Commonwealths have definitely decided that waste, overlapping, and unwholesome competition shall cease. Whether the desired end shall be reached by the establishment of central boards of control, by organized cooperation, and concessions on the part of existing institutions and their governing bodies, remains to be seen.

CENTRAL BOARDS OF CONTROL.

One of the first States to attempt centralization of control of State institutions was South Dakota. Under the laws of 1896 and 1903 a board of regents of education, consisting of 5 members appointed for 6 years, with compensation of \$1,000 a year, was placed in control of the university at Vermilion, the State college of agriculture and mechanic arts at Brookings, the school of mines at Rapid City, and three normal schools. Up to the present time little seems to have been accomplished in the way of readjustment and delimitation of function among the 6 institutions.

In 1901 the State of Minnesota created a board of control for the management of charitable and penal institutions, but the law was framed in such a way as to give the board financial control over educational institutions without abolishing the board of regents of the university. The university sought release in 1903 from this double-headed government, but failed. The intolerable condition created by the act of 1901 was remedied by the exemption of the university from the board of control, save in the matters of placing insurance, the purchase of fuel, and the erection of new buildings. In all other matters the board of regents has full control. A separate board of 9 members has jurisdiction over all the normal schools of the State.

By an act of 1905 the State of Florida abolished 6 institutions of higher education of uncertain grade, together with their boards; and a new board of control of 5 members, appointed by the governor for 4 years and serving without compensation, was created and given charge of a new University of Florida, a new Florida State College for Women, the Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes, the colored normal school, and the institution for the blind, deaf, and dumb. By the new law the complete management and control of these institutions was vested in the new board, but a section of the law provided that the board of control—

shall act in conjunction with, but at all times under and subject to the control and supervision of, the State board of education, the latter consisting of the governor, secretary of state, attorney general, State treasurer, and State superintendent of public instruction.

It should be noted that the board of education, which has power over the general interests of the State, has only one officer who can be considered as representing primarily such interests. The relations of the two boards have been on the whole amicable and co-operative, though in at least two instances the fact of two boards has complicated the administration of the university. The Florida board has seemed to work more effectively and harmoniously than the boards in any other State having such central boards. The president of the university reports that under no circumstances would the institutions "go back to independent boards and their scrambles at each meeting of the legislature for support of their respective institutions." He states further that the new law has "unified our higher educational scheme. It has resulted in a more perfect and better understood relation between the high schools and the colleges, and our entire education system has been quickened and stimulated." He recognizes, however, the possibility of trouble arising from friction between the two boards.

The rivalries of the three State institutions in Iowa—the university, the college of agriculture and mechanic arts, and the State teachers'

college—reached a climax in 1909 when the legislature, influenced in some measure by the success of a board of control of charitable institutions of the State, passed a law creating a State board of education, consisting of 9 members appointed by the governor with the consent of the senate for a term of 6 years, to be paid a moderate per diem compensation. This board has full control of all three institutions. It is assisted in its management of them by a finance committee of 3 outside its own membership, each of which receives a salary of \$3,500 and expenses. While the board has endeavored in its management of the institutions to discriminate between government and administration, to put an end so far as possible to rivalry, and to reduce duplication to a minimum, both its personnel and its procedure have been subject to a running fire of unfriendly criticism, which was specially vigorous after its announcement in October, 1912, of a scheme of somewhat radical redistribution of functions among the three institutions. It can scarcely be said that the experiment in Iowa is wholly or permanently successful. On the other hand, it should be said that institutions which had so long had a free hand and free field for their energies throughout the State and before the legislature could hardly be welded into a unified and cordially cooperative group in the single space of three years.

Some of the difficulties of institutional correlation in Montana have already been described in an earlier section of this chapter. To remedy these the State passed a law in 1909 under which a board of education of 11 members was created. Eight of these were appointed by the governor and senate, for terms of 4 years, without compensation other than traveling expenses, and 3 were ex officio members, the governor, State superintendent, and attorney general. Under this board were placed all the higher educational institutions of the State: The university at Missoula, the agricultural college at Bozeman, the school of mines at Butte, and the State normal college at Dillon, together with two charitable institutions and the State reform school. Supplementing this board at each institution was an executive board of 3 members appointed by the governor and the State board for terms of 4 years. Of each executive board the president of the institution concerned was an ex officio member. These subordinate boards were given immediate control of finances, subject to the supervision and control of the State board of education, which is in turn subject in financial matters to a third board, the State board of examiners, consisting of the governor, superintendent of public instruction, and the attorney general. If the Florida combination of two boards contains large possibilities of friction or of disagreements which would block progress, these difficulties are greatly increased by the complexity of Montana's threefold board system. No results appear to have come from efforts to remedy over-

lapping and duplication among Montana's institutions. Possibly not all of this lack should be attributed to the board alone. The president of the university, in his annual report for 1912 to the State board of education, stated:

Nothing has been more impressive than the defects in the system of divided institutions and their government in Montana. * * * That this division produces weaknesses of rivalry and waste of duplication, without real compensating advantages by separation, is recognized by many thoughtful men. Encouraged by such men, including many prominent in public life and several of this State board, I undertook a public discussion of this situation to see whether Montana would repair her great educational mistake before institutions were highly developed. No practical response was made by educational authorities or by the legislature. Instead, a measure was enacted into law introducing a more complicated system, giving final authority through financial control over higher education to a board of three political officers, not one of whom need be or is likely to be nominated or elected by reason of any special qualification to be an educational trustee. * * * Consolidation or even administrative unification of Montana's higher institutions seems to be a dream, not to be realized because of the strength of the forces of localism.

West Virginia was another State which entered in 1909 upon a scheme of centralized government for its State-supported institutions. A State board of regents of 5 members, including the State superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the governor and senate for a term of 4 years and receiving compensation of \$1,000 a year and expenses, has control of the university, 2 branch preparatory schools, 6 normal schools, and 2 colored institutes. This board deals only with educational matters. Alongside it is a board of control of 3 members, appointed by the governor and senate, receiving a salary of \$5,000 per year. This board has full charge of the charitable and penal institutions and of financial or business control of the educational institutions. On request of the board of control the two boards meet together. While this dual system violates the fundamental principle of unified authority and responsibility, the two boards have up to the present time worked together harmoniously and the State superintendent declares that "there has been great saving to the State."

In 1908, the year after the admission of Oklahoma to the Union, the university, which then had its own board of regents, suffered a sweeping change of administration and faculty. The facts connected with this revolution have been widely discussed and need not be rehearsed at length here. In February, 1911, the State created a board of education consisting of 6 appointed members and the superintendent of public instruction, who was president of the board. The superintendent was the only member of the board receiving a salary other than a per diem allowance. The board of education was charged with the supervision of the common-school system and the

work of the State textbook commission, and in addition governed the University of Oklahoma, the School of Mines, the Industrial Institute and College for Girls, the Agricultural and Normal University for Negroes, 6 normal schools, 2 university preparatory schools, 4 schools for defectives, a State school for orphan children, the colored orphanage, and the reform school. The Agricultural and Mechanical College, however, was continued under the separate control of the State board of agriculture.

The board was organized in April, 1911, and almost immediately began to make sweeping changes in the personnel of the faculties of the university and other schools under its control. New heads were appointed in six institutions and a large proportion of the members of their faculties were removed or transferred. Because of a disagreement between the board and the governor in regard to a book adoption, the governor in June, 1912, removed certain members of the board and appointed others to fill their places. Through an injunction of the institution these new members were not permitted to serve. In December the governor called the State senate in extra session. The Senate refused to confirm the new appointees. The governor then appointed a temporary board.

The State of Mississippi has had two central boards within two years. In 1910 a board of eight trustees appointed by the governor succeeded the separate independent boards of the University of Mississippi at Oxford, the Agricultural and Mechanical College at Starkville, the Industrial Institute and College at Columbus, and the Agricultural College for Negroes. The term of office was made six years, with per diem compensation and payment of all expenses. In addition to geographical distribution by supreme court districts, the board was obliged to have in its membership one farmer, one lawyer, and one builder, architect, or factory man. Various influences prompted the abolition of this board of 1910 and the creation of a new board under a law of 1912. It is of course too soon to judge the working of the new scheme in Mississippi beyond saying that its tenure and procedure are distinctly uncertain. The president of one of the State institutions stated the matter tersely, saying: "A central board as an abstract proposition is good; as a practical proposition, bad."

In summarizing an excellent discussion on central boards of control, presented to the National Association of State Universities, at its meeting in 1911, President C. R. Van Hise, of the University of Wisconsin, said:

If there were no overlapping of the work of higher educational institutions in any of the States, the movement for central boards of control would probably have little strength. Where concentration of the higher educational efforts of a State is still possible, at least so far as the university, the agricultural col-

lege, and the school of mines are concerned, this should be the line of endeavor of the educational leaders. There can be no question that in the new States where subdivision has been recently inaugurated the advantages would be immeasurable if concentration were possible; and this I do not hesitate to assert, even if to accomplish this would involve the total destruction of the physical plants from which the higher educational work is withdrawn. Usually, however, this would not be necessary, for with the movement for trade schools and the necessity for normal schools such plants could be used for these lines of effort, or, if not for them, for some other public purpose. * * *

In those States where overlapping of function does exist and it is not practicable to solve the problem by concentration, it is certain that the movement for central boards will have an ever-increasing strength, unless there is rational cooperation of educational effort and reduction of overlapping to a minimum.

The advantage of each large educational institution having a separate board is obvious. The experience of hundreds of years in this country, both with endowed and tax-supported institutions, shows that a nonpaid board of somewhere between 7 and 20 in number is the best method of governing an educational institution. * * *

If separate boards are to exist, where the institutions overlap they must cooperate. Of the methods which have been proposed for cooperation, those begun in Kansas and in Oregon are clearly the most hopeful. * * *

My conclusions are as follows:

1. In those States in which there are two or more higher educational institutions aside from the normal schools, these should be consolidated, if this be practicable; or in some of the Southern States the institutions for the whites and those for the blacks, respectively, should be consolidated.

2. Where consolidation is not practicable, each of the important educational institutions or groups of institutions of the same kind should have its own governing board. In this matter the experience of hundreds of years of all the educational institutions of the first rank should not be disregarded.

3. Where the higher educational institutions of a State overlap, in order to retain independent governing boards it will be necessary to have sharp delimitation of scopes, which reduces overlapping to a minimum, and cooperation in financial requests to the legislature. These may be accomplished through a commission composed of representatives of each of the institutional boards, or by a higher board composed of members not belonging to the institutional boards and having full authority in the respects mentioned, but leaving the government of each institution to its independent board.

4. In the case of overlapping institutions, if cooperation be not successful, central boards are inevitable. Of the types of existing central boards, that of Iowa is probably the best, in that it holds to the established principle of a nonpaid board of moderate size for the government of educational institutions, and thus in a measure at least retains the advantages of independent governing boards.

The agitation over duplication in Kansas led in 1911 to the passage of a bill creating a board of control, to be composed of three members receiving \$2,500 each, with provision for the election, outside of the board, of an educational expert to act as secretary at the same salary. Before acting upon the bill the governor took counsel by telegraph with many university administrators, and received replies from more than 20 of them. Almost without exception these

men advised against the measure, and the governor vetoed the so-called Keene bill. Before doing so, however, he prevailed upon the three existing boards to organize voluntarily into a commission on higher education, of which the governor should be chairman and the State superintendent of public instruction secretary. This extra-legal body has therefore served as a coordinating force in the State of Kansas, and through its committees on business management, on efficiency, and on coordination has been working toward a solution of the difficulties existing in the State. No measures of importance looking toward improvement, coordination, and economies have yet gone into effect as a result of the action of this commission. At best it may be looked upon as a hopeful experiment by which each institution may preserve its individuality and at the same time be released from danger of encroachment from other State-supported institutions, and feel assurance of adequate and equitable provisions by the State for its support and enlargement.

Investigations relating particularly to the problem of better economy, supervision, and correlation of State-supported institutions have recently been made or are now in progress in several States, through official commissions. In others the investigation is made through an extra-legal commission or committee, as in Colorado, where the committee was created by the Colorado State Teachers' Association. These educational commissions are not to be confused with bodies having similar names in Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Idaho, and Delaware, which have been created to deal with the general subject of public elementary and secondary education, industrial agricultural education, school law, etc.

The State of Virginia created in 1910 the Education Commission of Virginia, composed of seven persons appointed by the governor, four of whom must be experienced educators—

whose duty it shall be, after investigation, to devise suitable and systematic methods for the maintenance, management, and expansion of these institutions, according to the needs of each of them and with reference to a definite and harmonious educational system.

The commission when organized included the speaker of the house of delegates, the State superintendent of public instruction, the president of the University of Virginia, and representatives of the privately endowed colleges, normal schools, and medical schools. Before transmitting its careful and comprehensive final report to the governor in 1912 a detailed survey of the situation in Virginia was made by the commission itself. A tentative report on a mill tax for the State educational system as a whole was presented in October, 1910. In 1911, at the request of the commission, special

reports were presented by a representative of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and by the specialist in higher education in the Bureau of Education, both of whom made personal investigation of the State's institutions of higher education. The final report of the commission dealt with present conditions, with needed definitions of function, with apportionment of fields of work, with the question of State support for higher education for women, with professional education, and with the mill tax as a means of support. This report caused a very vigorous and even heated discussion, and in the end the legislature failed to take action on the recommendations of the commission.

The temporary education commission of North Dakota was created by an act of legislature in 1911, to study the educational system both in the United States and elsewhere, and to present a report which might—

form the basis for the unifying and systematizing of the educational system of the State, and thereby provide for the removal of unnecessary duplication of courses in the institutions of the State, as well as to suggest such legislation as will tend to prevent any unseemly competition among the institutions for appropriation, and to prepare a bill embodying its recommendations.

The commission consisted of seven members, including the lieutenant governor, the superintendent of public instruction, and the presidents of three institutions. It was given \$1,000 for necessary expenses. A report was presented to the governor and legislature under date of December 27, 1912, in which the commission accepted as a satisfactory basis for the development of the educational system of the State the provisions of a memorandum prepared by the Bureau of Education, in reply to a questionnaire submitted by the commission discussing "a State system of education, ideally outlined and operated."

The report of the commission favors one board for the normal schools, but separate boards for the university and the agricultural college, the coordination of secondary and special schools under a common board, and the development of the principle of the mill tax. The appendix to the report contains an important group of "views of authorities," 51 in number, submitted in response to a questionnaire sent out by the commission.

In addition to making provision for the board of higher curricula, mentioned in another paragraph, the State of Oregon passed a law in 1911, after correspondence with the United States Commissioner of Education, which regulates the certification of teachers by the State. Section 15 of this law provides that—

certificates shall be issued to graduates from standard colleges or universities who have completed 120 semester hours, including 15 semester hours in education.

By section 17 it was determined that—

a standard college, university, or normal school is one that shall be standardized by the United States Bureau of Education, of Washington, D. C. In case of the failure of said bureau to prepare a list of standardized colleges, universities, and normal schools, or to pass upon the standard of any college, university, or normal school of Oregon, a board for such standardization composed of [seven members, ex officio presidents, superintendents, etc., is provided].

The Bureau of Education accepted the invitation to assist the State of Oregon in this task of standardization of the higher educational institutions of that State. The specialist in higher education in the bureau was sent to Oregon late in 1911, and personally visited all of the institutions conferring degrees, in order to gain first-hand information regarding their administration, support, equipment, faculty, and standards. His report to the State superintendent of public instruction indicated that the University of Oregon, Pacific University, and Willamette University were to be considered as meeting the requirements of a standard college or university, according to the State law. The report indicated also the essentials in which seven other institutions fell short of meeting the requirements of a standard college, and pointed out in brief some steps which might be taken to remedy the deficiency. Five other institutions which had not as yet offered full four-year courses leading to regular degrees were not officially examined and reported upon.

In a region like the Columbia and Willamette Valleys, notable for their recent educational progress, each year is certain to produce some change in the status of colleges and universities, and the judgment expressed in this report will need to be revised frequently, so that no injustice shall be done to the colleges, on the one hand, or to the high schools employing their graduates, on the other hand.

Any discussion of schemes of coordination or correlation of State institutions would be incomplete without reference to the experience of Michigan, Indiana, and Ohio. Michigan maintains an agricultural college, a school of mines, and a State normal college, entirely dissociated from the University of Michigan. The status of the university is fixed by the constitution. Under the broad-minded leadership of President Angell, a working scheme of cooperation was elaborated and has been followed for many years. The institutions have not developed the main body of their courses on the same level, and therefore the understanding has not necessarily taken a definite and positive form.

The State of Indiana maintains two universities, Indiana University and Purdue University. After long years of more or less vigorous and unwholesome rivalry, in the last instance over the control of medical education, these institutions reached, through their presidents, a clear and cordial agreement to delimit their separate

fields in such a way as to prevent undesirable duplication of work, so long as the present good understanding continues.

The State of Ohio has effected some degree of correlation of its three State-supported and State-controlled universities, at Columbus, Athens, and Oxford, through direct limitation of their functions by the legislature itself. An act of 1906, incorporated in the general code of 1910, reads:

Inasmuch as it is deemed desirable for this State to determine its policy in regard to the support of institutions of higher learning, and further desirable that it adopt a distinct and fixed policy in regard to universities and colleges for all time to come, so that the policy of the State with reference to the Ohio State University, the Miami University, and the Ohio University shall be determined and made definite, and to the end that the State may build up one university worthy of it, as now begun at the Ohio State University, and also to fix such a policy as will provide support for the Miami and Ohio Universities as colleges of liberal arts, but not to include technical or graduate instruction, aside from the usual graduate work for the degree of master of arts, and to determine definitely for all time that the Miami University and the Ohio University shall be no greater charge on the State so far as university purposes are concerned than herein provided for; therefore this subdivision of this chapter is passed to set forth the policy, to wit: That in the future no representative of the Miami University or of the Ohio University or of the Ohio State University shall violate or attempt to violate this policy herein enacted into law as a policy for the support of higher education and as a guide for future general assemblies of the State of Ohio.

In furtherance of this policy, each of these institutions receives from the State the proceeds of a mill tax proportioned to its needs.

A somewhat similar result has been reached by the State of Washington through the act of March 13, 1911, creating separate funds for the university, State college, and the three normal schools, which are the proceeds of a continuing mill tax, varying for each institution. In order to secure an equitable revision of the rates fixed by the statute of 1911, it is provided that—

after January 1, 1916, it shall be the duty of the governor, upon the request of the president of any of the institutions of higher learning, to appoint a commission of five members to investigate reasons for changing the levy herein provided for, and to report to him in time for action, if any is necessary, by the legislature of 1917.

STANDARD COLLEGES AND JUNIOR COLLEGES.

Notwithstanding innumerable efforts to give a definition of a college, the word still remains almost as hard to define as "gentleman." To deny that the term is fully applicable to any institution calling itself a college is to offer serious affront to individuals connected with the institution, to all who hold its degrees, and to all their friends. Yet definition, or at least exact discussion, is abso-

lutely necessary if an institution is to deal honestly with the great public to whom it appeals and with the students whom it receives into its classes. Self-hypnotism or self-deception is not at all uncommon among institutions which have taken a high and honorable name at their beginning and have struggled through long years to reach a status worthy of the name. While they have exercised the degree-granting power as an incident in their commendable endeavor to furnish education to a community or a clientele, and while their numerous sons and daughters have risen up to bless their alma mater, there is no disguising the fact that the degrees granted represent in reality a debased educational currency. For example, one State institution having more than a thousand students never had as much as 4 units for admission requirements before 1912; in other words, it had not required for admission the equivalent of one year of an ordinary high school. Yet for years this institution has conferred the following degrees upon students who have completed the four years of work based upon the requirements just stated: Bachelor of science in agriculture, in civil and mining engineering, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, and textile engineering, and in the school of industrial education. During the same period, degrees similar to these have been conferred by such standard institutions as Cornell University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the University of Wisconsin only when a student had completed a full four-year high-school course preliminary to the regular four years of college work.

If one turns from the group of State-supported institutions represented by the one just mentioned to a group of privately supported institutions, the same difficulty arises in justifying the use of the term "college," complicated by lack of that assured support which has enabled the State institutions to develop with such unparalleled rapidity. Scores of these privately organized "universities" and "colleges" have disappeared during the westward march of population; still others have come to a recognition of the futility of trying to do four years of reputable college work with resources wholly inadequate for two years.

As a result of this long experience of certain institutions with income insufficient to justify the pretentious names assumed in the beginning, and as a result also of the unequal competition between the weaker private schools and the group of institutions which are beneficiaries of generous and awakened Commonwealths, the discussion of the scheme for junior colleges is gaining notable momentum. A study of the reports presented to the Bureau of Education for 1910-11 shows that there are in the United States 281 colleges with a working income less than \$50,000, exclusive of gifts for endowment

or increase of plant. Of these, 39 have less than \$10,000 of annual income; 76 between \$10,000 and \$19,999; 75 between \$20,000 and \$29,999; and 91 between \$30,000 and \$49,999. In the matter of endowment the showing of the same institutions is equally significant. Out of 581, 187 had no endowment; 70 have less than \$50,000; 115 have less than \$100,000; 197 have less than \$200,000. In these calculations are included 47 Roman Catholic institutions, which make no report of endowments, and whose estimates of income do not represent a figure exactly comparable with those of other institutions, for the reason that the teachers are not salaried and their services are not payable from income of endowment or from fees.

Among the minimum requirements now commonly recognized as necessary for a standard college is an unincumbered income-producing endowment of at least \$200,000. In the State of New York an institution must have at least \$500,000 of property. The acceptance of this minimum has stimulated numerous small colleges to undertake campaigns for increased endowment, and many of them have succeeded in bringing up their endowments to the minimum figure. But even this minimum is not a guaranty that the college will maintain itself on an approved level in competition with its richer and more vigorous rivals for patronage and support. In a notable address delivered in 1900 the late President William R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, discussed the prospects of a small college and declared his firm conviction—

that a large number, perhaps even a majority, of the colleges now attempting to do the four years of preparatory course and the four years of college work will be satisfied to limit their work to the six years which would include the preparatory training and the first year of college life. The motives to this change will be found in its economy, and in the possibility of doing thorough and satisfactory work, where to-day such work is impossible.

There are at least 200 colleges in the United States in which this change would be desirable. These institutions have a preparatory school, as well as a college course. The number of students in the preparatory school is perhaps 150. In the freshman and sophomore classes they have 30 to 40 students, and in the junior and senior classes 20 to 30. The annual income of these institutions is restricted for the most part to the fees of the students, and will average from all sources, let us say, eight to ten thousand dollars. In order to keep up the name of the college, the income is made to cover the expenses of eight years—that is, the preparatory and the collegiate departments. It is evident that * * * the work of the junior and senior college years can be done only in a superficial way, because the library and laboratory facilities are meager, the range of instruction is very narrow, and a single instructor is often required to teach in three or four subjects.

President Harper estimated that 20 or 25 per cent of the chartered colleges of the United States "are doing work of a character only a little removed from that of an academy." In such cases, he insisted

that the term "college" had been misappropriated. These institutions, he said—

will yield to the inevitable and one by one take a place in the system of educational work which is in one sense lower and in another sense higher. It is surely a higher thing to do honest and thorough work in a lower field than to fall short of such work in a higher field.

In the years which have elapsed since this great educational statesman uttered these words, the movement for the readjustment of the name and organization of institutions to fit more exactly their real purposes and practices, and for the organization of junior colleges or the reorganization of old institutions on substantially a junior-college basis, has gone on slowly but with sure step. The name has here and there been changed so as to describe more exactly the function of the institution. Lincoln University, Illinois, became Lincoln College in 1901; Lawrence University became Lawrence College in 1908; Lake Forest University continues as the corporate name, but since 1902, by action of the trustees, the institution has been called Lake Forest College, the alliance with certain professional schools in Chicago being severed in the same year; the College of the Pacific succeeds the University of the Pacific; Carleton College (Missouri) resumes its legal name of Carleton Institute.

The Methodist Episcopal Church South, through its educational commission, has for some years presented a tabulation of its educational institutions in three groups: (1) Universities, colleges (A), colleges (B), totaling 22; (2) unclassified institutions, in nearly every case calling themselves colleges and universities, numbering 30; (3) academies (A), academies (B), and junior colleges, totaling 49. The junior colleges thus enumerated number 12 in the report for 1911, and are located as follows—9 in Texas, 1 in Oregon, 1 in Georgia, and 1 in North Carolina. The board explains the use of the term in a footnote:

Under the law of our church, committing the basis of the classification of our institutions to the educational commission, it is not the province of the board of education to create a new group of institutions. However, the institutions numbered 38 to 49, doing a grade of work above that of the secondary school, but giving no academic degrees, describe themselves as junior colleges.

Probably the chief difference between these junior colleges and many of the institutions in group 2, unclassified institutions, lies in the fact that the latter give degrees, while the former do not.

The superintendent of public instruction of the State of Missouri reports 15 of the institutions which are ordinarily listed as colleges in that State as being junior colleges, and doubts if three or four of these are entitled to so high a rank as junior college.

Among the institutions which give college work but no degrees, as reported to this office, are Reynolds College and Fairmont College,

Texas; Caldwell College and Hamilton College, Kentucky; Glendale College and Urbana University, Ohio.

Several States make an approach to the junior-college problem along one of two lines. The first of these is discussed in the paragraph dealing with schools for the training of teachers. One of the most notable examples is that of Wisconsin, which has authorized its normal schools to give two years and no more of college work, thus in effect making the college departments of the normal schools just so many State-supported junior colleges having a special mission. The other approach is through junior-college organization in connection with local high schools. In Illinois such junior-college work has been carried on for more than 10 years by the township high school in the city of Joliet, whose principal writes regarding the progress of the work:

We began with five or six students with rather more serious attitude than the average student. The number has slowly grown until now we have 52 doing this fifth or sixth year's work. Not everyone who takes this work intends to go to a higher institution of learning, but every year for 10 years has seen from one to six enter college with advanced credit ranging from 20 hours to 50 hours. Thirty hours of such credit is considered a full college year. The number whose parents seem to approve of their remaining in the local high school for an additional year's work is increasing. * * * From the carefully chosen faculty of 53 people, we would intrust to do this work of collegiate grade only four or five.

The Lane Technical High School and the Crane Technical High School, in the city of Chicago, also carry on junior-college work which is recognized by the University of Illinois. The work in the Lane school was authorized by the board of education in 1911, and 50 pupils are now registered, but none have yet completed the full two years' course.

The State of California provided by law (Mar. 1, 1907) for the organization of junior colleges in connection with high schools. The law provides:

The board of trustees of any city, district, union, joint union, or county high school may prescribe postgraduate courses of study for the graduates of such high school or other high schools, which courses of study shall approximate the studies prescribed in the first two years of university courses.

The first city to organize such a junior college was Fresno. Three teachers were secured, and in the first year work was done in agriculture, as well as in the ordinary freshman subjects, with an average attendance of 12 or 13. Other similar junior colleges have been organized in connection with two city high schools in Los Angeles, the Hollywood High School, and the Santa Barbara High School. By law the course in these junior colleges is closely coordinated with that of the university, though they have aimed rather to supply the needs of students who could go no further than to fit students for transfer to college or professional work in the universities.

Along with this process should be noted the tendency of institutions still retaining the name university to discontinue professional departments which entail ever-increasing demands upon the treasury of the university, as the requirements of professional education, notably in medicine, are raised year by year. They are thus enabled to devote their services and strength to the limited field with renewed effectiveness. Hamline University (1907), University of Denver (1911), and Drake University (1913) are illustrative of the transfer of the medical departments to the State university; Ohio Wesleyan University relinquished its medical school to Western Reserve University. The University of the South discontinued both the law school and its medical school in 1909-10, after nearly 20 years of experimentation with them. Nor have the privately endowed institutions been alone in this matter of restriction of the work of professional schools. The University of Missouri suspended, temporarily at least, the work of the last two years of the medical school on account of inadequate clinical facilities; the University of North Carolina gave up in 1909 the last two years of its medical school, which it had maintained since 1902 in Raleigh on an unsatisfactory footing; and the University of Mississippi experimented briefly and unsuccessfully with a second two years of its medical course at Vicksburg, and now has but the first two years at Oxford.

CONSOLIDATION OF INSTITUTIONS.

The merger of two or more institutions now and then takes place. In 1868 two Presbyterian colleges of the antebellum period were united as Greenville and Tusculum College, located at Tusculum, Tenn. Fifteen miles away was Washington College, doing practically the same work. To secure economy and eliminate rivalry a union was effected in 1908, after several unsuccessful attempts had been made. Under the name of Washington and Tusculum College, the academic, agricultural, and industrial work was to be carried on at Washington and the college work and domestic science at Tusculum. It was a case of coalescence, however, rather than a real union, since, in 1912, the colleges were separated by a court decree.

In 1889 Carson College, for young men, and Newman College, for young women, two institutions in Tennessee, united to form a coeducational college, since known as Carson and Newman College.

Two Kansas universities were combined in 1903 to form one college. Lane University, of Lecompton, founded in 1867, and Campbell University, at Holton, founded in 1882, were united at Holton.

A more striking example of this procedure is to be found in the consolidation of Centre College and the Central University of Ken-

tucky, under the name of Central University of Kentucky. By agreement made in July, 1901, and amended in November, 1907, Central University as a college at Richmond ceased to exist, and the institutions originally known as Centre College, the Central University of Kentucky, the Hospital College of Medicine, and the Louisville College of Dentistry, located at Louisville, constituted the new university. Later the college of medicine was united with three other medical schools of Louisville and ceased to be a part of Central University.

The latest and most noteworthy merger was the union of Scio College and Mount Union College, Ohio, under the general direction of the Methodist Episcopal Church. At the time of the merger Scio College had 64 college students and 130 preparatory students, \$5,500 of endowment, property valued at about \$65,000, and a total working income of \$6,550. Mount Union had 127 college students and 97 preparatory students, endowment of \$316,000, property valued at \$200,000, and a total working income of about \$23,000. The fact that these institutions were within 50 miles of each other, appealed to like constituencies, and were affiliated with the same great church, probably facilitated the union thus happily accomplished.

The process of alternating consolidation and expansion of institutions has been carried on with varying measures of success throughout the advancing West and in the re-created South. A resolute attack upon the problems of ignorance and indifference has not always succeeded. The failure of one method has prompted a second, a third, and even a fourth attempt, illustrating the various elusive, elastic, accommodating qualities of the name "university." Many institutions have disappeared altogether, while others, after prolonged struggle and self-sacrifice, have achieved permanence and admirable vigor. Like the ship in Kipling's story, they have found themselves and have started with fine equipment and adequate support upon their long journey of service. Not infrequently a notable achievement or success stands out all the more prominently because of the long wrestling with poverty and adverse circumstances which has preceded it.

Only occasionally nowadays does one find a small or middle-sized college taking the name of university; even Harvard, Columbia, and Princeton did not take their present names until a comparatively recent date. An illustration of the reversal of the program described in the preceding paragraphs is found in the change of the name of Santa Clara College (California) to University of Santa Clara in 1912:

The university now possesses the following constituent colleges: The college of philosophy and letters; the college of general science; the institute of law; the college of engineering, embracing civil, mechanical, and electrical engineer-

ing: the college of architecture; the school of pedagogy; and the premedical course.

* * * In order that Santa Clara may widen her scope as a first-class educational institution, funds are necessary. Santa Clara stands in imperative need of an endowment.

Other instances of this sort of change of name are the incorporation of Union College (New York), as the undergraduate department, with the observatory and three professional schools in Albany, as Union University in 1873, and the change of the name of the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts of Maine, in 1897, by an act of the legislature of that State, to the University of Maine. The State university in South Carolina has the unique distinction of being a university for the third time. Chartered as South Carolina College in 1801, and reverting to that name twice since, it was made the University of South Carolina in 1865, 1887, and 1906, by legislative acts of reorganization.

COMPETITION AND COOPERATION OF COLLEGES.

The problem of efficiency, economy, and essential honesty in the administration of colleges and universities is no longer one for solution merely by individual institutions according to their necessities or the wisdom of their heads. Just as the aroused public sentiment in the States is demanding wider correlation of State-supported institutions to the end that public higher education shall be harmonious and progressive, so the common sentiment of the great body of the supporters of Christian churches, disregarding more or less the hard lines of denominationalism, is demanding of the organized agencies for promoting Christian education a wise and statesmanlike cooperation. The great aim is the upbuilding of colleges, universities, and specialized schools in which the principles of religion and morality shall be safeguarded, emphasized, and vitalized. Coordinate with, or running through, the intellectual and social training of the student, the development of a strong and active Christian faith is and must remain among the primary functions exercised by this group of institutions.

The period of overzealous competition among denominations for advantage of position and priority in the centers of population in the West and the farther West witnessed the multiplication of weak churches in thousands of localities, until the number of church organizations and church buildings in some of the frontier towns became almost a joke. Likewise each denomination, honorably ambitious for its progress, felt obligated to plant colleges along the route of expansion, often quite regardless of similar establishments of other churches. The cheap, bare, unattractive church structures were matched with

the cheap, ill-constructed, pathetically inadequate buildings of the "college" or "university," whose supporters labored with true missionary enthusiasm, backed by an infinite hope of support and endorsement. In each section certain colleges were bound to survive and to reach a position of power and influence, as centers both of liberal culture and of religious truth. The doctrine of the survival of the fittest applied with inexorable steadiness, and the history of higher education in the West is full of the stories of the wrecks of these enterprises. In the State of Illinois probably not more than 50 per cent of the institutions chartered or organized are now in existence.

Admirably as the history of Ohio or Kansas would illustrate this sort of development, the Willamette Valley in Oregon will serve still better. There, in an area 120 miles long and 50 miles wide, in a State having a total population of 675,000, are found 12 colleges, including the State university, the agricultural and mechanical college, and one clearly undenominational college; the rest represent 9 denominations, while a tenth denomination has organized a junior college in another part of the State. One of these colleges, which belongs to a great church, was first opened nearly 50 years ago, yet last year its total registration of college students was only about 20. Two other colleges, representing, respectively, the radical and conservative wing of a church whose total membership in the whole United States is slightly over 300,000, are located in the same little village—"The Brick College" and the "College on the Hill." In one of the "colleges" in this region, nearly a half century old, all the work, in classroom, laboratory, and museum, in physics, chemistry, biology, and geology, is carried on by one man in a single room not more than 16 feet square.

Out of this condition sprang up in the last year a unique movement to combine colleges. The United Evangelical Church, the United Brethren Church, and the Church of the Evangelical Association combined in the creation of a commission for the purpose of formulating plans for the prosecution of their educational work on the Pacific coast. In the "Declaration of federation," which was unanimously adopted, the commission states:

We recognize the wisdom of combining our forces to conserve the largest degree of interest and efficiency of our educational work on the Pacific coast. * * *

We do hereby severally and together declare ourselves unqualifiedly in favor of the federation of our work on the Pacific coast, and the organization of one college which shall be the successor to the two collegiate institutions hitherto maintained at Philomath and Dallas, respectively, and which shall be owned and controlled by the three churches represented on this commission. * * *

We favor the consummation of this federation not later than September 1, 1913.

The name of this institution for the time being shall be "The Federated College of Oregon"; and in the event some individual will give \$100,000 for the endowment fund to the federated college, it may bear the name of the donor.

The development in southern California is much more recent and in a region noted for its population and wealth and for the excellent educational lineage of its people, yet in an area not more than 70 miles by 25 miles are 8 institutions, representing in reality though not nominally, 6 churches. There is, besides, one large State normal school.

In certain of the newer States, like Oklahoma, the State has preempted so thoroughly and so promptly the field of secondary and higher education that the development of competition among denominations has been somewhat retarded; as it has been in States like Minnesota and North Dakota. The State of Oklahoma supports an agricultural and mechanical college, and also, under the direction of the State board of education, the University of Oklahoma, the School of Mines, the college for women, 6 normal schools, and a normal and industrial university for colored students. To provide institutions in which the training of moral character and the inculcation of the principles of the Christian religion shall be specially emphasized, five denominations have undertaken to plant colleges and academies. Three colleges have been accorded definite recognition, while 8, calling themselves colleges or universities, have not gone much beyond the secondary-school stage. The work of the Reformed Church was confined to Cordell Academy; after several years of unsuccessful effort, the academy building was turned over to the Presbyterian Church, which succeeded no better and relinquished the task.

Obviously, conditions such as these in southern California and Oklahoma are not very satisfactory to the denominations concerned. Shrewd, experienced, forcible, farsighted leaders of the great Protestant denominations have recognized this waste of energy and the hopelessness of the outlook for some of the colleges in their care. The cause of Christian education to which they are all devoted suffers from divided efforts, from low and uncertain standards, from the general weakness of multiplying agencies, and from the mislocation of institutions. Obviously, too, the cause of Christian education for the future would be better promoted by insuring concentration of support on a limited number of carefully chosen institutions, rather than by indefinitely nursing along struggling rivals ill-fitted by every characteristic except earnestness and denominational loyalty to compete with the immeasurably stronger, aggressive State institutions.

The purpose of the Council of Church Boards of Education, the outgrowth of the recognition of such conditions as those just de-

scribed, was discussed in the last annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, pages 55-58. The first meeting looking toward its formation took the form of a conference of the secretaries of the boards of education of certain churches, which was held in New York, February 18, 1911. The churches represented were the Methodist Episcopal, the Methodist Episcopal South, Congregational, Presbyterian, and Lutheran. At another meeting representatives of the Friends Church and of the General Education Board were present.

A third conference was held in Philadelphia January 17, 1912. The membership of the council includes, besides those just mentioned, representatives of the following churches: Disciples of Christ, United Brethren, Reformed, Presbyterian Church South, and Christian, making a total of 18 men representing 11 churches.

CORRELATION OF UNIVERSITIES AND THEOLOGICAL SCHOOLS.

Squarely in line with this cooperative movement among the church boards of education is the effort made to unify the work of preparing religious and social workers. Separate and isolated theological schools have struggled in certain sections to obtain both support and students. Social developments of recent years have laid stress upon the need of social and institutional workers, in addition to the regular clergy. There was organized in 1910 in Nashville, Tenn., the American Interchurch College for Religious and Social Workers. On its directory were representatives of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, the Methodist Episcopal Church, the Presbyterian Church, and the Congregational Church.

A part of the fixed policy of the interchurch college is to establish and maintain a close affiliation with Vanderbilt University and with the George Peabody College for Teachers, so that the entire resources of the three institutions may be made available for all students.

Another phase of the cooperative movement is found in the happy and economic relation established between certain great universities and special denominational schools in their vicinity. The relation between Columbia University and neighboring theological seminaries is peculiarly close and cordial. Union Theological Seminary and the General Theological Seminary are both represented in the university council, and students are reciprocally admitted to certain lectures in regular or special courses without tuition fee. Similar reciprocal arrangements exist with other theological seminaries in the vicinity of New York—Jewish Theological Seminary, Drew Theological Seminary, St. Joseph's Theological Seminary, New Brunswick Theological Seminary, and the German Theological Seminary,

though the distance of some of these precludes the frequent exchange carried on between the university and the Union, the General, and the Jewish Seminary.

Around Harvard University, and in intimate relation with its divinity school, three theological institutions have grouped themselves. The Episcopal Theological School was the first, receiving its charter in 1867. Though there is no official connection between the two institutions, Harvard offers to the students of the theological school, in addition to opportunities to take regular courses, the free use of its library and gymnasium, and the theological students may become members of the Harvard Athletic Association, including membership in the boat clubs and admission to athletic contests. The Stillman Infirmary, of Harvard, is also open to them.

The relation between Andover Theological Seminary and Harvard University is much more intimate. Andover Seminary occupied its palatial new buildings adjacent to the Harvard Divinity School in 1911, and the agreement for interchange of faculty and of students, perfected in 1908, became fully effective. The libraries of the two institutions, known now as the Andover-Harvard Theological Library, containing more than 100,000 volumes, are housed in the new Andover Seminary building. Students may receive the whole of their instruction from Andover teachers, or may divide their work between the seminary and the university. If the student wishes to take the Harvard degree, he may fulfill the statutory requirement of "residence at the university at least one year" while in residence at Andover Seminary. The dormitories and boarding accommodations of Harvard University are open to Andover students on the same terms as to university students.

Also adjacent to Harvard University is the New Church Theological School, which was moved to its present location in 1889, and the same privileges are extended by the university to the students of this theological school as to the others. The Newton Theological Institution, at Newton Center, might also be added to this list, since its distance from Harvard is not so great as to preclude the registration of its students for a limited number of university courses.

Around the University of Pennsylvania are three seminaries, whose students may take advantage of the opportunities for undergraduate or graduate work offered by the university. The Divinity School of the Protestant Episcopal Church encourages the combination course, and students are allowed to add to their studies at the university branches of study belonging to the junior year in the divinity school; thus industrious students may complete the course prescribed for this year by the time they have graduated from the university.

The Crozer Theological Seminary of the Baptist Church has a similar working arrangement with the university. In this case—

the privilege of elective work in the University of Pennsylvania is regarded as a reward for their collegiate preparation for a theological course and as an opportunity for investigation of subjects not usually provided for in a theological curriculum. In order that this privilege may minister to the best discipline, both in the seminary and in the university, the number of university electives that may be taken during a three years' residence in the seminary is limited to the number required for the degree of master of arts from the university.

These electives in the graduate school of the university are open only to seminary students who hold degrees granted by colleges or universities whose degrees are recognized by the university.

The University of Cincinnati maintains reciprocal relations with two theological institutions in its vicinity, which are described as follows in its catalogue for 1911-12:

Arrangements have been made with the Hebrew Union College and with Lane Theological Seminary whereby students of these institutions who are pursuing a course in the University of Cincinnati may be allowed to count work in Hebrew taken in these institutions for the degree of bachelor of arts, to the amount of two hours a week throughout the freshman and sophomore years, and three hours a week throughout the junior and senior years, for the Hebrew Union College, and three hours per week for three years in Lane Theological Seminary, provided such work is regularly entered upon the election schedules of the University. * * *

Courses in Hebrew taken in Lane Seminary and in the Hebrew Union College by graduates of recognized colleges and universities may count to the extent of 12 hours for the master of arts degree.

At Berkeley, Cal., on the other side of the continent, is found a similar grouping of theological schools about the University of California. In this case several of the schools have been recently moved to the neighborhood of the university, or have been newly created in that vicinity, for the purpose of close affiliation with the university. Within a few minutes' walk of the campus are the Pacific Theological Seminary of the Congregational Church, the Berkeley Bible Seminary of the Christian Church, the Pacific Unitarian School for the Ministry, and the Pacific Coast Baptist Theological Union. Not only do these institutions avail themselves of the opportunities offered by the university, but they recognize the advantage of interchange with each other. The last institution announces that—

by a system of free cooperation it is able to avail itself of the values of any of the courses of the Pacific Theological Seminary (Congregational), and of the Berkeley Bible Seminary (Disciple), and of the courses in the University of California. * * * The faculty urge students, even if they are college graduates, to take some courses in the university. If a student is not prepared in Greek, that too can be had in the university. It is evidently wise economy to use these university courses rather than to provide them ourselves, at great expense.

To San Francisco, less than an hour away from the university, the Protestant Episcopal Church has removed its Church Divinity School of the Pacific, from San Mateo, where it was founded in 1893. It also announces that—

there will be opportunity to arrange for special courses in advanced study at the California universities when desired.

The Ryder Divinity School of the Universalist Church, hitherto located at Galesburg, in connection with Lombard College, was last year removed to Chicago and is now affiliated with the divinity school of the University of Chicago. A similar removal has been under consideration by the Meadville Theological Seminary (Unitarian), Meadville, Pa. Already there are seven theological schools in Chicago and its suburbs. Three of them are organically related to universities. Besides the two just mentioned is the Garrett Biblical Institute of the Methodist Episcopal Church, which includes special seminaries for Norwegian-Danish and for Swedish students. This institute occupies, under a long lease, a portion of the campus of Northwestern University, of which it is, to all intents and purposes the theological department or school. The catalogue of Northwestern University devotes a section to these theological schools, and states the conditions of interchange of credits for advanced degrees.

At Eugene, Oreg., the Bible University of the Christian Church has been built on land almost adjoining the campus of the University of Oregon, and interchange of students and college credits takes place.

Recent announcements are made of a plan of cooperation with each other and of affiliation with McGill University, of Montreal, Canada, entered into by four theological colleges of Montreal, representing the Congregational, Presbyterian, Wesleyan, and diocesan organizations. It is worthy of note in this connection that the institutions in Canada are following an English model as well as an American, since the theological schools of various sects have been affiliated with municipal universities in Manchester and Bristol. The University of Bristol, notwithstanding that it is supported by both municipal and imperial subsidy, accepts the work of these affiliated schools and grants degrees in divinity along with other ordinary degrees. Three such degrees were granted in 1912.

NEW INSTITUTIONS.

Among the institutions recently created, two stand out significantly for the deliberation, courage, and originality which have characterized the plans for their organization—Reed College, Portland, Oreg., and Rice Institute, at Houston, Tex. Scarcely a single region in the country could be named where there is urgent need for a

college or university with the aims and methods of the average institution of this class. One chartered college, more or less, does not shift the center of gravity or point of interest in higher education in such great States as Texas and Oregon. But when a college like Simmons College, of Boston, or an institution like Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, for negroes, makes a new attack upon a problem of education, forging new machinery for turning to educational account existing material hitherto unused, or when it deals with its raw material in a new way, the experiment gains nationwide attention. So in the last two years Reed College and Rice Institute, both highly endowed, have opened their doors to students. Both are prepared to put into execution most carefully matured plans for high-power educational service.

Reed College is the first institution established by the trustees of the Reed Institute. Created under the wills of Mr. and Mrs. Simeon G. Reed, who gave property valued at about \$3,000,000, this college starts with an income of approximately \$100,000. Exercising their broad discretionary powers, the trustees decided, after most careful study of the needs of Portland and vicinity, and after counseling with the experts of the General Education Board, to establish a college of liberal arts and sciences, but to differentiate it by its administration, rather than by its organization, from other colleges of liberal arts. Its declaration of purpose, made in a bulletin of March, 1911, reads:

It will attempt to do only as much as it can reasonably be expected to do with its annual income as well as such work is done anywhere. Accordingly, it will not overburden its instructors, allow its enrollment to increase more rapidly than its resources, or trust any of its teaching to temporary underpaid assistants whose interests do not center in their students. It aims to appoint and retain only those who are devoted to their students, who love their teaching above all else, who know how to teach and can not but inspire, and whose whole life is imbued with the professional spirit.

Reed College unquestionably stands for personalized education, for the impartation of the best thought and impulses of the race to the worthiest young men and women obtainable. Requiring as an indispensable qualification for admission the completion of a four-year high-school course of standard grade, it proceeds with refreshing deliberation and frankness to sift and sort the candidates offering themselves, so that waste of time and effort upon ill-trained, ill-advised, and ill-disposed intrants shall be reduced to a minimum.

The college does not bind itself, however, to admit all students who present the necessary scholarship certificates and the ordinary certificates of good character. Earnest effort will be made to learn the temperament, habits, and purposes of each candidate for admission, as well as his total record in and out of school. For the first class, at least, the president expects to have a personal interview with each prospective student, and to take as much time

as may be necessary to form a judgment of his fitness to profit by the offerings of Reed College. * * *

No students will be admitted on condition. As this is a departure from the prevailing practice of American colleges it needs some explanation. To a majority of candidates our colleges virtually say: "According to our professed standards you are not prepared to undertake college work. Although the secondary-school opportunities are greater than ever before, although the wider range of admission subjects makes failure every year less excusable, yet you have failed to present our minimum requirements. Nevertheless, we admit you with conditions, allow you to try to do college work in the same class with those who are prepared, and in addition we require you to make up your deficiencies in secondary-school work." The effect of this policy is to hamper the work of those secondary-school teachers who are trying to promote and sustain intellectual effort; for the prospective college student interprets this leniency as a guaranty of admission, despite superficiality or deficiency of preparation. He is thus prepared for further evasion of work after he gains admission to college.

The first application of this method of admission, by which not merely units checked, counted, and proportioned are the things needful, but in which the fiber, purpose, and spirit of the student are weighty considerations, was marked by a notable firmness and self-restraint. Out of 263 students who applied for admission to the first class in September, 1911, all but 50 were declined; some because they would have been conditioned or special students; others because they seemed to lack the desired earnestness or purposefulness. All applicants for advanced standing were in like manner refused.

One very significant test of the wisdom of a method of admission of freshmen lies in the percentage of students regularly completing within the year the freshman work for which their admission credential is supposed to be an evidence of fitness. In place of the "mortality" of 20 per cent, of which some institutions speak without shame and even boastingly, Reed College eliminated three because of poor scholarship, and advised two to transfer to other institutions more allied with their interests. The students thus constituting the first freshman class (26 men and 24 women) did not enter upon a course necessarily four years' long, for the catalogue expressly states that the requirements for a degree can not be stated in terms of years of residence, since the quality of work enters into account, as well as the number of courses, semester by semester.

During 1911-12, with only the freshman class, the college had, besides the president and director of music, 3 professors and 2 instructors. In 1912-13 a new freshman class of 80 was admitted; with two classes, the faculty consists of the president, the librarian, 9 full professors, and 3 instructors. Two professors and an instructor are on leave of absence, and will enter upon their duties in September, 1913. The average salary for all persons teaching during 1912-13 is \$2,385; the ratio of instructors to students is fixed at 1 to 10.

The transformation of the Peabody Normal School of Nashville, Tenn., into the George Peabody College for Teachers is worthy to rank with the organization of Reed College and Rice Institute as an event of primary significance in the recent development of higher education. The Peabody Normal College was supported from 1875 to 1911 by the Peabody Education Fund. The trustees of that fund decided to make a final distribution and voted to appropriate \$1,000,000 for the organization of the new George Peabody College for Teachers. This action was concurrent with gifts to the new institution from the city, county, and State, amounting to \$500,000, together with 16 acres of land and the buildings of the University of Nashville, approximately \$250,000 in value. A further offer of \$500,000 is made contingent upon the raising of \$1,000,000 by the college prior to November, 1913. Toward this latter sum the General Education Board has contributed \$250,000 for the endowment of the Seaman A. Knapp School of Country Life, as a memorial of the uniquely constructive work of Dr. Knapp in energizing in the rural South the forces for economic and social betterment.

Thus is assured for the South a central teachers college for the higher education of teachers, designed to supplement and reenforce the State normal schools of the section. Its strategic location on a beautiful site adjoining the campus of Vanderbilt University, with which it has established cordial relations; its measurably adequate equipment and endowment; and its freedom to work out its plans for direct usefulness to the elementary and high schools of the South place it alongside the Teachers College of Columbia University, New York, the University of Chicago, and the University of California in its opportunities for wide specialized service. What the Teachers College of Columbia University has been and is for the Eastern and Middle States, with their complicated problems of urban and foreign populations, that the new George Peabody College aims to be for the great South and Southwest, a region where 80 per cent of the population contributes its children to the rural and village schools. These schools in their present development—or lack of development—stand in critical need of trained educational leaders, such as the new college aims to prepare, men and women at once sympathetic, patient, enlightened, and resourceful, who can undertake the constructive reformation of the present rural school, which has been aptly characterized as “only a poorly equipped and poorly taught city school located in the country,” so that it shall become a vital force throughout the whole section, binding the interests and aspirations of the youth to their communities and at the same time giving them ideals and appreciations which link them indissolubly to the higher life of the State and Nation.

The Rice Institute of Liberal and Technical Learning was opened to students in 1912, in Houston, Tex., and formally dedicated in October, during an academic festival notable for dignity, lavishness of entertainment, and distinction of foreign guests invited to participate in the elaborate program of addresses and papers. The original gifts or bequest of William Marsh Rice, by whose will the institute was to be located at Houston, Tex., and devoted to the advancement of letters, science, and arts, have increased under the prudent management of the board of trustees in amount and income-producing power until the present resources of the institute are estimated at approximately \$10,000,000. Relieved by its imperial revenues from the necessity of an immediate showing in number of students and in the "results" too often impatiently demanded from tax-supported institutions, Rice Institute has taken four years for the formulation of definite plans for building and development. Unhurried, and with many sagacious counselors, it has begun its work in a new and rapidly developing country by first building a group of strikingly beautiful buildings on a great campus of 300 acres near the city of Houston. In the words of President E. O. Lovett, in his formal dedicatory address:

The very problems pressing for solution in the development of its environment seemed to call for a school of science, pure and applied, of the highest grade, looking in its educational program quite as much to investigation as to instruction. Accordingly, and in the spirit of the founder's dedication of the institute, it was proposed that the new institution should enter upon a university program beginning at the science end. As regards the letters end of the threefold dedication, it was proposed to characterize the institution as one both of liberal and technical learning, and to realize this larger characterization as rapidly as circumstances might permit. With respect to the art end, it was proposed to take architecture seriously in the preparation of its plans and to see to it that the physical setting of the institute be one of great beauty as well as of more immediate utility.

Rarely if ever in recent years, with the exception of the brief period which saw the organization of the University of Chicago and the Leland Stanford Junior University, has a single three years seen the beginnings of work in three such richly endowed institutions as Reed College, Rice Institute, and the George Peabody College for Teachers. Each one is set in a wide field of service; each is independent of hampering traditions and entangling alliances; each is to be worthily housed at its beginnings; each has in present command of its destinies men of unusual experience and vision and courage; and to them the whole group of higher educational institutions, even the oldest and greatest, may look for light and leading in the solution of their common problems.

EDUCATION FOR JOURNALISM.

The opening of the new School of Journalism of Columbia University in September, 1912, was an event in higher education comparable with the founding of the new institutions already discussed. The original gift for founding this school was made by Joseph Pulitzer, owner of the New York World, who gave to the university in 1903 \$1,000,000 for the purpose of establishing a school of journalism, which at that time was practically without precedent. By the terms of agreements made between the donor and the university in 1903-4, the definite organization of the school was not to be proceeded with until the donor exercised his right to nominate an advisory board, a board to be composed of "the foremost journalists and editors possessing expert knowledge on the subject." Mr. Pulitzer chose not to exercise his right to appoint such a board during his lifetime, and the stipulations of the agreement did not become effective until after his death in 1911. By his will a second gift of \$1,000,000 was provided for, contingent upon the successful carrying out of the purposes of the original agreement for a term of three years, failing which the million dollars was to be given to Harvard University.

Following the death of Mr. Pulitzer, the advisory board was appointed, consisting of the president of the university, Mr. Ralph Pulitzer, and the most distinguished men in American journalism, representing four New York newspapers—The World, The Sun, The Times, and The Tribune—the Boston Globe, Brooklyn Eagle, Philadelphia Press, Chicago Daily News, St. Louis Post-Despatch, and the Springfield Republican, and the Associated Press. The school has registered during its first year 55 regular students, the fourth-year class being made up entirely of persons already holding collegiate degrees.

This great gift, and the organization of this new school of journalism, is indicative of the momentum acquired by the movement among colleges and universities for the development of professional or semi-professional courses in journalism, and also of the strength of a practical idealism generated in the very center of a most practical, most strenuous, profession and business. The aim of such courses, as announced by Columbia University—

is to assist and attract to the journalistic profession young men of character and ability, and to help those already engaged in the profession to acquire the highest moral and intellectual training. It will be the object of the school to make better journalists, who will make better newspapers, which will better serve the public.

While a college training can not make a journalist, it can help to make broader and bigger the man who has the capacity for a success-

ful career as a journalist, who shall practice with high mind and public spirit, coupled with strong business acumen, the "art of timely and effective presentation in print."

The last decade has seen a marked change in the recognition by newspaper men themselves of the value of thorough training for the profession. If the old college training was looked upon by the elder journalists, like Horace Greeley, as a positive hindrance, there can be no question that such a princely gift as that of Mr. Pulitzer is an index of the changed sentiment of the journalistic world. His own conception of conditions in his profession and of the principles underlying their improvement through reduction of waste of time, material, energy, and life itself were expressed in a notable article in the *North American Review* in May, 1904:

The "shop" idea is one that used to prevail in the law and in medicine. Legal studies began by copying bills of cost for the country lawyer; medical training by sweeping out a doctor's office. Now it is recognized that better results are obtained by starting with a systematic equipment in a professional school. The lawyer learns nothing at college except the theory of the law, its principles, and some precedents. When he receives his diploma he is quite unprepared to practice. Nor does the doctor learn to practice at the medical school. He learns only principles, theories, rules, the experience of others—the foundation of his profession. After leaving college he must work in the hospitals to acquire the art of practically applying his knowledge.

In journalism at present the newspaper offices are the hospitals, but the students come to them knowing nothing of principles or theories. The newspaper hospital is extremely accommodating. It furnishes the patients for its young men to practice on, puts dissecting knives into the hands of beginners who do not know an artery from a vermiform appendix, and pays them for the blunders by which they gradually teach themselves their profession. We may sympathize with the students in their industrious efforts at self-education, but may we not also sympathize with the unfortunate editor who has to work with such incompetent instruments?

Speaking of this change, President Butler, of Columbia, says:

The plan which was greeted with respectful incredulity then (1903) is welcomed with generous enthusiasm now. Much of this change of sentiment is due to a clearer understanding of what Mr. Pulitzer had in mind and of what he hoped to achieve by his great benefaction. It was plainly his wish and purpose to do what lay in his power to dignify and elevate the standards and to extend the influence to that calling to which he had so successfully devoted his life. He believed that this could best be accomplished by a university training school, placed side by side with successful training schools for the so-called learned professions and in the same academic association. He was not afraid of adding knowledge to practical experience, nor did he hesitate to prefer practical experience based upon knowledge and training to one which was without that secure foundation. (An. Rep., 1912, p. 44.)

While this gift of Mr. Pulitzer has been lying fallow, as it were, the provisions made for direct instruction in journalistic principles

and methods have been extended throughout the country. Both endowed and State-supported institutions have organized courses of varying length and breadth leading in some cases to such a degree as bachelor of science in journalism in a school with a separate organization as a school or department, having a faculty and equipment of its own. Twenty-six universities and colleges now offer courses in journalism, and in December, 1912, a permanent national organization was effected by teachers connected with these schools.¹ Nearly all such schools of journalism have the same quantitative admission requirements as other departments of the university. At the University of Missouri, however, journalism is a separate professional school, coordinate with the schools of law, medicine, and education, requiring for admission two years of regular college work. In such institutions as the University of Wisconsin, Kansas University, and the University of Washington the work in reporting and news writing and editorial writing is spread over two years at least, and is connected with the press enterprises of the student body. Through the courtesy of the Seattle Times the department of journalism has exclusive control of one page of the Sunday edition. At the University of Wisconsin, in which 155 students were registered in the course in journalism in 1911-12, six organizations are maintained by students interested in journalism: The University Press Club, The Cub's Club (for freshmen and sophomores interested in newspaper work), the Hoard Press Club (for students in agricultural journalism), the Advertising Club, and two professional journalistic fraternities for men and for women.

While the academic side of the work of students in journalism is confined largely to English and modern languages, history, economics, sociology, political science, philosophy, logic, and psychology, the professional work is made intensely practical by actual gathering of news, especially in institutions located in centers like New York City, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Chicago, and Seattle. The professional courses include the practice and discussion of news gathering, reporting, editorial writing, and newspaper administration, the history of journalism, journalistic ethics, and jurisprudence. In some cases the actual typesetting and press work is carried on by the students in the issue of a college daily paper, which is run without subsidy and must pay its bills like any other paper. More than a

¹ Beloit, Colorado (University), Columbia, De Pauw, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa State College, Kansas, Kansas Agricultural, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts Agricultural, Marquette, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Nebraska, North Carolina, North Dakota, Notre Dame, Ohio State, Oklahoma, Pittsburgh, South Carolina, Wisconsin.

thousand students are reported as enrolled in courses in journalism in American universities.

The following outlines of courses in journalism may be taken as illustrative of the work counted toward degrees in typical eastern, middle western, and far western universities:

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, 1911-12.

The equivalent of 60 hours' credit in the college of arts and science is required for admission to the school of journalism. These credits should include 5 hours of economics, 5 hours of sociology or political science, and 5 hours of logic and psychology.

In order to secure the degree of bachelor of science (B. S.) in journalism the student must fulfill the following conditions:

1. He must be regularly admitted to the school.
2. He must complete (a) a major of 24 hours in journalism, including 6 hours of history and principles of journalism, 6 hours of news gathering, and 3 hours of copy reading; and (b) a minor of 12 hours chosen, with the consent of the dean, in related subjects.
3. He must complete a total of 72 hours.

Subjects and hours in journalism.

	Hours.		Hours.
History and principles of journalism.....	6	Magazine making.....	2
News gathering	6	Newspaper jurisprudence	1
Reporting.....	6	Agricultural journalism	3 or 6
Copy reading	6 or 4	Advanced news writing (juniors and seniors)	6
The editorial (juniors and seniors only)	6	Educational journalism	3 or 6
Newspaper direction (seniors).....	6	Comparative journalism	2
Advertising (not open to fresh- men).....	3	The press and public opinion.. 1, 2, or 3	
		Professional terminology.....	4
		Bibliography.....	2

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON, 1911-12.

Specific journalism courses.

Titles.	Semester.	Credits per semester.	Offered to—	Prerequisites.
Elements of newspaper writing.....	1, 2	1	Freshmen.....	None.
Reporting.....	1, 2	3	Sophomores.....	Rhetoric, 1, 2.
Editing.....	1, 2	2	Juniors.....	1, 2.
Newspaper history.....	1, 2	2	do	None.
News interpretation.....	1, 2	2	Seniors.....	1, 2, 3, 4.
Editorial writing.....	1, 2	1	Juniors.....	English, 1, 2.
Short story.....	1, 2	3	All.....	Do.
Advertising.....	1, 2	2	Juniors.....	None.
Mechanics of printing.....	1, 2	3	Freshmen.....	Do.
Advanced printing.....	1, 2	2	Seniors.....	8.

Electives recommended: English literature, history, argumentation, ethnology, evolution, law, practical public speaking for men, library reference, magazine make-up, additional courses in political science or philosophy.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, 1912-13.

FIRST YEAR.		THIRD YEAR.	
	Hours.		Hours.
Freshman English composition	6	Practical course in writing (continued)	6
Newspaper reading course in French or German	6	Newspaper technic—news gathering, copy	6
History and principles of natural science	6	Modern European literature	6
General survey of history	6	Statistics	3
Introductory course in—		The industrial revolution	3
Politics	6	Party government in the United States	6
Philosophy or a language or a science	6	Special lectures	2
SECOND YEAR.		FOURTH YEAR.	
Practical course in writing	6	Newspaper technic—	
Introductory course in economics	6	Special reporting and interviewing	6
Survey of English literature	6	Editing and rewriting	8
Survey of American literature	4	History of journalism	6
Laboratory course in European history	8	Elements of law (especially the law of libel)	6
Survey of American history	6	Labor and trust problems	6
		Total	136

The development of courses in journalism is by no means peculiar to the United States. Lecture courses in German universities were begun as early as 1906. These deal with such subjects as, at Leipzig, the history, organization, and technique of journalism; at Berlin, with public opinion and journalism in Germany; at Heidelberg, in the history, condition, and opinion of the press in journalism in Germany, together with a practical course introductory to journalism; at Zurich, with the history and system of the law of the press; at Berne, with practical courses in editing and news service of a newspaper.

TRAINING TEACHERS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Never has the attack upon the problem of providing training for teachers for all schools been pressed with more vigor than it is to-day. The significance of the teacher's function, especially in nonurban communities; the needs of such communities for educational leadership which reaches beyond the classroom and beyond the school day; the skill and technical knowledge demanded in a teacher; the sympathy and enthusiasm indispensable to understand and deal wisely with local interests and local industries—these and similar vital matters are under daily discussion in schools for the training of persons to become teachers. Various forces are working to quicken the popular appreciation of these considerations. Education is no longer

merely a thing of books and pencils for children and adolescents; it does not end at the age of 16 or 21; it is for men and women who still retain the capacity and the desire for growth; it must touch life in the heart and the hand as well as in the head. Extension work, night schools, apprentice schools, short courses (as in dairying), corresponding courses, summer schools, and traveling libraries and laboratories are forms of response to this new demand for education. It might even be characterized as applied education, paraphrasing the term applied Christianity as used in certain discussions of religion and in the title of a professorship in Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa.

The problem of training teachers differentiates itself according to the nature of the pupil material to be dealt with, since qualified teachers are needed for positions ranging from the kindergarten to the college, from preparation of boys and girls for rural life to preparation for the complicated responsibilities of business, industry, commerce, professions, and social service. Granting that success will ultimately reward the efforts now put forth to make teaching really a profession and life career, for which definite preparation must be made and to which shall be attracted men, as well as women, of fine personality and thorough training, it is perfectly clear that teaching as a whole is still only a profession by courtesy. When the superintendent of public instruction in State after State reports year by year such alarming impermanence and such disheartening percentages of crude and untrained teachers in the common schools, no one can seriously claim that teaching is yet a profession except in the sections devoted to middle and higher education. Earnestness and devotion of a few persons can not be made substitutes for knowledge or for skill in the many in interpreting life and things to children.

In the great State of Illinois the superintendent of public instruction in 1910 reported 29,281 teachers employed in the common schools of that State, including about 6,000 teachers in Chicago, and all high-school teachers in the State. Of these, 3,448 had not had the equivalent of a good high-school course and 3,063 were without previous experience. Until very recently, 75 per cent of the teachers of the rural schools of Oregon were without the equivalent of a good high-school education.

The normal schools, as originally organized, were designed for training teachers for the elementary or common schools and have generally been considered the State's agency for that purpose. With great credit many of them have held themselves to this great task; but, unfortunately, too many of them have never outgrown the condition in which they are a combination of normal school and local high school, or have served as a free State high school in competition with other high schools supported by the localities alone or in

cooperation with the State. In some of the older States, as well as in some of the newer, secondary or even elementary work, in which the problem is that of giving knowledge of subjects to be taught rather than instruction in the theory and art of teaching, has been predominant. It is not always easy to determine how far this is true in a particular institution, since many of the normal schools do not report any students of high-school grade, though it is well known that students are admitted in large numbers from the eighth grade. The custom followed by some of these schools, and also by some colleges, of giving only an alphabetical list of students enrolled, instead of making a classification of students, increases the difficulty of making fair estimates of registration and grade of work.

A normal school in Oklahoma in its catalogue for 1910-11 gives an alphabetical list of students numbering about 700; its report to the Bureau of Education showed no high-school students; yet 354 of the students were registered from the town in which it is located, which had a population of less than 4,000 people. Similarly, a Missouri normal school reported 1,400 students in 1911, but presented only an alphabetical list. The difficulty of making a statistical estimate of the services of a normal institution is complicated still further in cases where the institution is part of a college or university maintaining also a preparatory department, because of duplicate registration in both the normal and preparatory departments or in both the normal and college departments. An institution in Ohio includes a normal college and a preparatory school; a classified list of students is presented, by departments and classes, showing a general total of over 3,000; of these about 1,400 are "names counted more than once," but the reader can not tell how many of those credited to the normal college are primarily normal college registrations, in contrast with preparatory and regular college registrations. A Kansas normal school presents a careful classification, enabling one to see at a glance that in 1911-12 there were in the alphabetical list nearly 3,000 enrolled, including "repetitions" and graduates of 1911. The classification shows the number in the four-year secondary course; in the first and second years of the college, or regular normal, course; and in the third and fourth years of the college course. Yet this school reported to the bureau no students in the high-school grades for the year in question.

Eagerness for numbers of students as an index of success and as a basis for asking increased appropriation has led many institutions away from strict and unremitting attention to their primary business of training men and women for teaching, yet the schools themselves are not solely to blame, since the policy of concentrating this work in one institution, as in Iowa, has necessarily magnified the element of numbers.

A comparison of the statistics of State school systems and of normal schools presented in this report will make it entirely clear that the normal schools of the States, without exception, supply only a minor fraction of the demand made annually for new teachers in each State. The State superintendent of public instruction of Minnesota reported in 1909-10 that 3,000 new teachers were needed annually in the public schools of that State, while the normal schools of the State taken together graduated in that year 690 students, or less than 25 per cent of the number needed. In 1911-12 the need was just as great, and it would have taken the whole registration of 3,700 students of the five normal schools to meet the requisitions of the schools. To supply new teachers in Iowa, which has more than 60 per cent more teachers than Minnesota, the Iowa State Teachers' College, the only public normal school of the State, with a registration of 2,425, granted degrees and certificates of all kinds, between June, 1911, and March, 1912, numbering 308. In Missouri, with a demand at least 15 per cent greater than Minnesota's, the total registration at the normal schools in 1911-12 was slightly above 6,300, and the number of persons certificated in some way about 750. New York's 15 public normal schools in 1910-11 graduated 1,811 students, to fill the vacancies occurring in a body of more than 45,000 teachers. Pennsylvania's 15 public normal schools in the same year sent out 1,925 graduates, to fill vacancies among more than 35,000 teachers.

The tendency to advance the normal-school curriculum beyond two years of work above the high-school course and to organize standard courses leading to regular degrees is illustrated by the Albany Normal College (New York), the Michigan State Normal College at Ypsilanti, the Colorado State Teachers College, and the State Normal School at Kirksville, Mo. Some of the States have given authority to all their normal schools to grant degrees. Among these are Illinois, Kansas, Missouri, and Colorado. Many normal schools in other States have taken the name of college or university and have conferred regular collegiate degrees; for example, the North Carolina State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro; Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S. C., and Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

The degrees granted by these institutions show a wide variety. At one of the normal schools of Missouri, a student may take the degree of bachelor of pedagogy upon the completion of two years' work above the high school; for three years' work he may receive the master of pedagogy, and upon the completion of a fourth year's work the degree of bachelor of arts will be conferred.

The enforcement of the requirement of full four years' high-school work, or its equivalent for admission to the professional two-year courses in normal schools, is making steady headway. The State of

California has established this rule for its normal schools without exception, save that two of the schools continue to give a course substantially like the usual four-year high-school course. Where these entrance requirements have been fully met, students upon graduation may, as a rule, go to colleges and universities and receive sufficient credit to enable them to take a bachelor's degree in two years. Such a plan of coordination of normal school and college work is commended by its economy and by its professional efficiency. In this way the comparatively small number of graduates from the normal schools who desire to go on will be provided for, just as the normal schools will provide for those who graduate from training classes of high schools or county training schools for teachers.

This principle of coordination was worked out in the State of Wisconsin and embodied in a law passed in 1911 which contains the following provision:

The board of normal-school regents may extend the course of instruction in any normal school so that any course, the admission to which is based upon graduation from an accredited high school or its equivalent, may include the substantial equivalent of the instruction given in the first two years of a college course. Such course of instruction shall not be extended further than the substantial equivalent of the instruction given in the first two years of such college course without the consent of the legislature.

By a system which places all the normal schools under a single board of regents or trustees, as in Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota, this process of coordination may be carried through logically and yet permit the schools in different parts of the State to diversify their courses to meet local needs or to provide specialized instruction for particular groups of teachers, like those in manual training, domestic science, business, or industrial subjects.

In view of conditions like those just discussed in the preceding paragraphs—and the story could be expanded almost indefinitely—it is discouraging to find in so many quarters a well-developed tendency on the part of normal schools to insist on being granted the right to develop standard college courses, at least in liberal arts and sciences, to give the usual academic degrees, and to prepare graduates for high-school positions. Such a tendency might be welcomed by a State and its normal institutions provided with the necessary facilities for such advanced instruction, if they were already discharging fully their duty to the elementary schools.

As already indicated, some States in their sovereign unity of purpose seem to have determined to be judiciously deaf to the urgings of ambitious heads of normal schools until every elementary school-room is occupied by an informed and pedagogically trained teacher. Distinct advantages attach to a system organized to divide up the revenues available for the training of elementary school teachers

among several moderate-sized schools set at strategic points in the State and to keep each school to its appointed task, permitting none to assume college functions in competition with State-supported colleges or universities. Few States have too many normal schools, though some of these schools are badly located. Few States have normal schools which would not be strengthened for their purposes by a rigid pruning and grading and by developing agencies to touch directly teachers in service in much the same way as the new movement in agricultural education and agricultural extension contemplates touching the actual worker at his task.

The State of Tennessee has made it obligatory on the principals and instructors in normal schools for the training of white teachers to assist in conducting teachers' institutes in the counties of the State. The teachers of the normal schools are required, without additional pay except for traveling expenses, to assist in such institutes not more than six weeks in any one year. In other words, by this law of 1909 the extension function of the normal school is recognized and imposed upon the State normal schools of Tennessee as an essential part of their work.

CHAPTER IV.

CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1911-12.

By WILLIAM R. HOOD,

Division of School Administration, Bureau of Education.

CONTENTS.

- I. City school administration.
 - II. Reorganized school systems.
 - III. Professional investigations: Baltimore; New York.
 - IV. City superintendents: Salaries; tenure; important changes.
 - V. Course of study: Simplification; shorter elementary courses; departmental teaching; differentiation in grammar-school courses; European history in the elementary school; moral training; time schedules.
 - VI. Industrial education: Cooperative courses and continuation schools; dual system of school administration; Federal aid.
 - VII. Kindergartens.
 - VIII. Teachers' salaries and pensions.
 - IX. High schools: Shorter courses; junior high schools; fraternities.
 - X. Vacation schools.
 - XI. Physical welfare of school children: Medical inspection; open-air schools; school lunches; sex instruction; quiet zones around schoolhouses.
 - XII. Miscellaneous activities: Social centers; school gardens; savings banks; playgrounds.
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INTRODUCTION.

The field of urban education is broad. No other branch of the American school system ramifies in so many directions or touches society at so many points as the city school does. Health, morals, wholesome home conditions, industrial and commercial well-being—in short, all sorts of means for the enhancement of social and individual efficiency, as well as the traditional textbook training, are now promoted by the city school system. Moreover, the city school is the most mobile of all the fields of American scholastic endeavor. Only a few years ago one read with surprise of medical inspection in schools. Then came school savings banks, industrial training, and open-air classes, all of which are already widespread. Now one reads of swimming lessons, sex hygiene, aviation, and wireless telegraphy in the curriculum of some cities; and the end is not yet. In a recent letter directed to superintendents of city schools the Commissioner of Education said:

In almost every city I visit I find that the public schools are working out particularly well some one or more comparatively new things.

There is, however, a field in city school progress which may profitably be surveyed. It is possible to point out pronounced tendencies and significant progressive steps and to bring together as examples masses of facts showing the general trend. To be sure, not every item of progress in each city, nor every possible example of a tendency can be given; the purpose of this paper is to present a general view of the important developments during the year under consideration.

I. ADMINISTRATION.

There have been during the year no revolutionary developments on the administrative side of school work, as in 1911 when Pennsylvania reduced the number of members of school boards of practically all cities in the State and provided for their election at large, and when large and important cities in other States dealt with the matter of administration. This is due in a measure to the fact that more than three times as many legislatures met in 1911 as in 1912. With a few exceptions administrative changes during the past year have proceeded little further than the stage of agitation or discussion. But it is apparent that there have been forces at work tending in the same direction as in previous years. While less productive of specific results, these forces have probably been in their influence equally as productive as those of some apparently more fruitful years. Among the proposals for administrative reforms have been the continued agitation in some quarters of the reduction in the size of school boards, the removal of school control from partisan politics, the reduction in the number of committees of boards, and a marked tendency to city self-government.

The new charter proposed for New York City in 1911, under which the board of education was to be reduced from 46 to 7 members, with salaries for their services, failed of passage through the State legislature. But there is no means of knowing what would have been the fate of the proposal for a reduced board membership if it had been stripped of its association with the more objectionable provisions for salaried board members and the reduction of the school department to the level of the ordinary city department. These latter two features were sufficiently heavy to break down the whole structure. It was urged against salaries for board members that the unpaid board always has been almost universal in the United States, that the beneficiaries of political preferment—too often not the best type for the school board—would seek and obtain the position if it were made a salaried office, and that salaried members with nothing else to do would interfere with the professional duties of the superintendent and his staff of trained experts in professional control. Against re-

ducing the school department to the level of other city departments, it was said that the proposal would place the administration of the schools more in the hands of partisan politicians. These two features were the chief points of attack, no objection of consequence being made to reducing the membership of the board. In this connection quotation may be made from an open letter addressed by President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, to Mayor William J. Gaynor on June 29, 1911:

That the present board of education is much too large is hardly a debatable question, although it has been debated. The number was fixed at 46, rather than at 6 or at 146, simply to compose personal differences and borough rivalries when the school system of the greater city was constituted. A board of 13 or 15 would, in my judgment, be quite large enough to represent all the interests of the city of New York, and it would be small enough to do its business sitting about a table, where views could be easily expressed and compared. It would also be small enough to avoid the temptation to divide itself up into numerous committees, a method of organization which always makes for division of responsibility, inefficiency, and delay. A very few strokes of the pen in the present charter would substitute a small board for a large one, and would also free the board from a considerable portion of the purely routine work which now takes its time.¹

The school year 1911-12 was the first under the new "School code of Pennsylvania," which received brief treatment in the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1911, the year of its enactment. The reduction of the membership of boards and the general readjustment of every city school system in the State became necessary. Pittsburgh's former board of 45 members, representing wards or subdistricts, was displaced by a new body composed of 15 members; in Reading, a city of the second class, 64 members gave place to 9; Connellsville, a city of the third class, saw 21 men superseded by 7. In all cases the ward system of selection of boards has passed away, and every member appointed or elected must now be a representative of all the people in the city. It is still too early properly to appraise the Pennsylvania law in the light of experience, but some intelligent discussion of its results has ensued. Some doubt has been expressed as to the efficiency of the law in removing the schools from partisan politics. It is pointed out that the election of the school directors at the same time with other public officers has a tendency to cause the drawing of partisan lines in the nomination and election of such directors. In some cities it may happen that intelligent and progressive wards which formerly elected a high type of board members may now be outvoted by less intelligent sections of the city, and thus the board may lose very desirable members. On the matter of reduced membership of boards, there appears to be practical

¹ Educational Review, 42 : 205, September, 1911.

unanimity among educators that a wholesome change has been made. Complete data for all the cities of the State are lacking, but from fragmentary facts at hand it would appear that a larger percentage of women is now to be found among the directors selected.

Some cities in which the membership of boards has more recently been reduced are New Orleans, La.; Lynn, Mass.; Covington, Lexington, Newport, and Paducah, Ky. In New Orleans the reduction was from 17 to 5; in Lynn, from 12 to 5. In the Kentucky cities corresponding reductions were made. In Providence, R. I., where the system of election by wards prevails, reduction of membership and election at large are earnestly advocated.

Doubt as to the advisability of creating extremely small boards in large cities has been expressed in some quarters. It will be noted that President Butler, in the quotation previously made from his letter to Mayor Gaynor, appears to favor a board of about 15 members for New York City. Some have advocated increasing the membership of the school committee of Boston from 5 to 9. Those who oppose the extremely small board urge that the duties of the governing body of the school system in a city of several hundred thousand population are too numerous for a board of a very few members; that the advantages of having the composite judgment of a board over the individual opinion of a single director are to some degree defeated in the small board, and that small membership is conducive to "one-man power." However true this may be, the trend now is unquestionably toward reduction of the membership of extremely large administrative bodies. If the pendulum swings too far, it is not unreasonable to expect that it will right itself in a wholesome counter swing.

Another movement noticeable in school administration is the tendency in some cities to reduce the number of committees of the school board, and thus to secure for proposed measures more trustworthy administrative consideration. Without question, committees and subcommittees in some board organizations are too numerous. As these committees come to have large powers, either delegated or allowed by courtesy, it is certain that many important acts of the board as a whole become too perfunctory; too often a meritorious proposal is defeated or a questionable measure approved through scant consideration other than committee action, which is frequently behind closed doors or in such other privacy as will attract little or no attention. But during the past year several boards reduced the number of their committees. This, of course, is a natural concomitant of the reduction of general membership. In Lynn, Mass., one of the cities to which reference has been made, it is specifically prescribed that the entire board shall consider all questions.

In the matter of granting a greater measure of local self-government to cities, Ohio took the lead in 1912, when constitutional amend-

ments to that end were adopted on September 3. Regarding city school boards, Article VI, section 3, now reads:

Provision shall be made by law for the organization, administration, and control of the public school system of the State supported by public funds; *Provided*, That each school district, embraced wholly or in part within any city, shall have the power by referendum vote to determine for itself the number of members and the organization of the district board of education, and provision shall be made by law for the exercise of this power by such school districts.

In Article XVIII it is further provided that—

Any municipality may frame and adopt or amend a charter for its government and may, subject to the provisions of section 3 of this article, exercise thereunder all powers of local self-government.

The legislative authority in the municipality is required on petition of 10 per cent of the electors to submit to vote of the people the question "Shall a commission be chosen to frame a charter?" or on its own initiative it may by two-thirds vote submit the question. On an affirmative vote of the electors, a commission of 15 is elected and a new charter is framed for submission to a vote within one year of the election of the commission.

II. REORGANIZED SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

Much is said and written nowadays of the school's inefficiency; one hears, too, a great deal of increasing its efficiency. Thus from both points of view the impression is given that something is wrong with the American school, that at least there is room for salutary changes. In the opinion of even the least critical, much remains to be done to perfect our school system. The chief count in the indictment against the school is that it is not meeting the needs of the community, and various panaceas for this ill have made their appearance. "Enrichment" of the curriculum, "socializing" the school, and industrial training are some of the "movements" of which one has often heard or read. A writer recently asserted, perhaps without sufficient basis of fact for an accurate statement, that 75 per cent of the children in the United States are defective, and by implication his remedy would be concentration of interest and energy on improving the health of the younger generation. It can not be denied that there is much of value in many of the recent proposals for improvement. Some see in a complete reorganization of the school system the only effectual means of readjustment. But whatever may be the need or however great it may be, there is in some quarters a tendency to make radical changes in the organization and work of the city school.

Gary, Ind.—While the school system of Gary, Ind., does not properly constitute a reorganized system, for it has only very recently attained the proportions of a city, still it may be regarded as a type of reorganization. In that city new buildings have been constructed and schools organized on the principle that much time waste may be eliminated and economy of administration secured by the simple expedient of bringing all the grades, including the high school, into one building and using the building through a longer period of the day. The schoolhouse is made available for use from 8.30 in the morning until 10 at night, not that the children shall be kept in school at night or even all the day, but rather that the period of activity may be made to include more hours of work. The class room is made to serve two classes, the one doing regular work while the other is at play, manual training, or the like. The building is equipped for all such activities and the rotation of classes makes possible the widest use of all parts of the plant. All activities, including play, are conducted under supervision.

The advantages claimed for the "Gary plan" are that wider school opportunities are afforded the pupil and that at the same time the cost is reduced. Regarding cost, Supt. William A. Wirt says in his annual report:

A tax levy of 25 cents per \$100 will provide the revenue for building maintenance with buildings of the Emerson [new] type. A tax levy of 78 cents per \$100 will be necessary to provide the revenue for building maintenance with buildings of the Jefferson [older] type. School buildings of the Emerson type, therefore, will make possible a reduction of 53 cents per \$100 in the tax levy. The present tax levy of the town of Gary is \$3.14 per \$100 assessed valuation of property. A reduction of 53 cents would make this levy \$2.61. With a fair assessed valuation the school-tax levy in Gary will be reduced 30 cents per \$100 assessed valuation of property this year, which will be the actual proof of the economy of school buildings of the Emerson type from the standpoint of the taxpayer.

Pittsburgh, Pa.—The enactment of the new school code in Pennsylvania in 1911, to which reference has already been made, exemplified the tendency to reorganize the school system and on a larger scale, for there the entire State was affected. Pittsburgh has received more notice than any other city of the State in effecting the changes provided in the law. In that city not only was the school board reduced in membership, but the importance of the superintendency was increased and the supervisory staff much enlarged. A teachers' training school was established and other measures adopted for raising the standard of the teaching force in the city. The course of study adopted includes provisions for industrial and commercial training and other features more in accord with the best practice of progressive city systems. The semiannual promotion of

pupils has displaced the annual. In short, a school system once the subject of much adverse criticism has speedily recovered from its atrophy and now gives promise of soon taking its place among the best city school systems of the country.

Hammond, Ind.—In this city Supt. C. M. McDaniel has effected a reorganization which includes the introduction of cooperative industrial courses, vocational guidance, preparatory vocational instruction, an employment bureau, vacation schools for regular studies, and the promotion of pupils without examination or fixed numerical marking or grading of papers. The Hammond plan contemplates keeping the pupil in school as long as possible, providing practical training for him while in school, eliminating nonessentials, and helping the pupil through the prescribed work with as little waste as possible.

Concord, N. H.—The reorganization of the school system of Concord, N. H., took the form of a readjustment of the grades. The new scheme constitutes an approach to the "six-and-six" plan of school organization, to which some space is devoted in another part of this chapter. Eleven grades now comprise the entire course, but the effort is to do in these 11 years the work of the ordinary 12-grade school. The elementary schools are composed of the first six grades. The seventh grade, which is considered the first year of the high school, is placed in four separate buildings. The eighth grade is in a single building. The three upper grades—third, fourth, and fifth years of the high school, respectively—are housed in the former high-school quarters. Two basic principles underlie the present organization of the Concord schools: First, the separation of the seventh and eighth from the lower grades and their approximation to high-school conditions makes less abrupt the passage from elementary to secondary education and works for economy in administration. Second, the plan of providing for the advancement of pupils as they are capable of advancing overcomes to a degree the limitations of the rigid system of promotion. Supt. Louis J. Rundlett writes as follows of the separate organization of the seventh and eighth grades:

Results which have been made manifest by this arrangement are: A very decided advance in scholarship. A marked contrast with former freshmen classes in preserving manners of action and dress that belong to pupils of their age. The social functions allowed have been of a character that retains the artlessness and purity of childhood. The class spirit is more wholesome and strong, being freed from the influence of older classes.

Another form of the reorganization consists of offering elective or differentiated courses in the seventh and eighth years. This is made more feasible by drawing the line of demarcation between the elementary and secondary schools at the end of the sixth year instead of at the end of the eighth. Supt. A. B. Hess, at Crookston, Minn.,

has planned the courses in his city along this line. There the seventh and eighth grades are placed in a single building, and in this school three distinct courses are offered: (1) Preparation for the academic high school, (2) preparation for a commercial course, and (3) preparation for an industrial course.

Hackensack, N. J., Roanoke, Va., and Houston, Tex., are other cities in which fundamental changes in school organization have recently been effected. Changes in these cities represent different forms of the tendency to differentiate between the elementary and secondary schools on a basis other than the traditional basis.

During recent years there has been a tendency toward and much discussion of conducting the school for practically the entire year. The vacation school, which made its appearance in the city system a quarter of a century ago, has blazed the way to a better use of the pupil's vacation, and many now see in this period an opportunity for valuable school work. In Cleveland, Ohio, a plan involving practically a full quarter of work in the summer months was evolved, but later the school authorities receded from their advanced position in this regard. Newark, N. J., has during the past year been experimenting with the all-year school.

III. PROFESSIONAL INVESTIGATIONS.

Of the recent efforts to reach a correct estimate of the school's efficiency, none has attracted so much attention as the investigation of city systems by professional experts. In the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1911 attention was called to this method of approach to the problem of measurement, and the cities of Baltimore and New York were pointed out as the two most notable examples of investigated systems.

There are certain difficulties which confront the investigator of a school system, however fit he may be for the undertaking. The lack of fixed and generally accepted standards of measurement by which to judge conditions found, constitutes one of the chief difficulties. That such standards exist as yet can hardly be successfully maintained. For example, the number of minutes per week devoted to a particular study varies greatly in different cities. Formal grammar is begun in some cities in the sixth grade and in others in the fifth or seventh. Wide variation is found in methods of instruction and in the correlation of the several branches of the course of study. This diversity of practice indicates certainly a want of fixity of standard and perhaps a lack of knowledge of the true norm in these particulars. In consequence, the investigator is hampered, since he must depend in large measure upon empirical opinion, a means which can not fix with finality the number of minutes per week that should

be devoted by a sixth-grade pupil to arithmetic, the time at which formal grammar should be first taught, or any one of numerous other desirable standards.

The lack of full and reliable data regarding the conditions investigated constitutes another difficulty. A reasonably complete body of facts, not only of the city under investigation but also of other cities of its class, is indispensable to the investigator. But much desirable information regarding city schools is not available, or at best it is in fragmentary form. Moreover, local school authorities themselves are often unable to give desired data. By reference to Table 8, Chapter XXV, of the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1911 it will be seen that of 1,241 city school systems of 5,000 population and over, only 81 reported in proper form for publishing in full the data requested on the Bureau of Education's unabridged schedule, or blank, used for the collection of city school statistics. If it may be assumed that failure to report fully on this schedule was due to inability to do so, then only 6.5 per cent of the cities of the country could give a body of data of moderate scope. It is, therefore, no small task for the investigator coming from outside the city to collect and make readily accessible the great mass of facts connected with the operation of a large and complex city school system.

Add to the obstacles already indicated the dangers arising from the expression of preconceived opinions, from hasty antagonisms because of fear that a report adverse to certain interests will be made, from opportunities for intensifying prejudices and like manifestations of human nature, and one readily sees the difficulty and delicacy of the task before the investigator of a school system of such proportions as that of Baltimore or New York.

Working under some of the limitations indicated, the "Commission appointed to study the system of education in the public schools of Baltimore" made its study and published its findings, which are now matters of record. The chief concern here is with the results of the investigation, and the greater proportion of these are more or less intangible. Some succeeding events, however, are worthy of note.

Shortly after the commission's report was made public three members of the school board were relieved of their duties. This was possible through a provision of the charter giving the mayor authority to remove any member within six months after the latter's appointment. As it happened, three of the board's members came within the reach of this charter provision, and they were displaced in favor of three men more in accord with the views of the mayor and with the opposition to some of the administrative policies of the majority of the former board.

One of the first acts of the reconstructed board was to remove the superintendent from office. The vacancy thus made was filled by the appointment of Mr. Francis A. Soper, principal of Baltimore City College, and his corps of assistants was reorganized to meet the views of the new administration. One other important change made was the revocation of the rule requiring teachers to pass promotional examinations at stated points in their progress to the maximum salary in the schedule. Thus, neither the expressed nor the implied recommendations of the commission were carried out in the reorganization of the Baltimore school system that followed. Over the wisdom of the changes made, sharp controversy ensued.

The New York inquiry, conducted during the year 1911-12, took a different form from that of Baltimore. Dr. Paul H. Hanus, professor of the history and art of teaching in Harvard University, was called by the board of estimate and apportionment to direct the investigation and associated with himself a body of able assistants. Eleven distinct phases of the school system were subjected to study. The several specialists selected, and the subjects assigned to them, were as follows:

1. Dr. Frank P. Bachman, assistant superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio—
Statistical studies:
 - (a) "Promotion, nonpromotion, and part time."
 - (b) "Intermediate schools."
 - (c) "Method of estimating the need of elementary school-teachers."
2. Dr. Edward C. Elliott, director of the school of education, University of Wisconsin—"The system of supervision and the board of examiners."
3. Dr. Jesse D. Burks, director, bureau of municipal research, Philadelphia, Pa.—"The compulsory-attendance service."
4. Dr. Herman Schneider, dean of the college of engineering, University of Cincinnati—"Vocational (industrial) schools."
5. Dr. Frank W. Ballou, director of school affiliation and assistant professor of education, University of Cincinnati—"Problems in organization and administration of high schools."
6. Dr. Calvin O. Davis, assistant professor of education, University of Michigan, and inspector of high schools—"The course of study in high schools."
7. Dr. Frank V. Thompson, assistant superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.—
"Commercial education."
8. Dr. Henry H. Goddard, director, department of psychological research, New Jersey Training School for Feeble-Minded Boys and Girls—"Ungraded classes."
9. Mr. Stuart A. Courtis, head of department of science and mathematics, Detroit Home and Day School, Detroit, Mich.—"The Courtis tests in arithmetic."
10. Dr. Frank McMurry, professor of elementary education, Teachers' College, Columbia University—
 - (a) "The quality of classroom instruction."
 - (b) "The course of study."
 - (c) "The supervision by the principals."
11. Dr. Ernest C. Moore, professor of education, Yale University—"The board of education and local boards."

To the 11 monographs contemplated in the assignments indicated above Dr. Hanus added a twelfth, "Introductions and conclusions of the report as a whole," a paper prepared by himself. At the time this chapter is written, six of the monograph reports have come to the desk of the writer and others are in process of publication. The report of Prof. Moore, however, was rejected by the board of estimate, difference of opinion having arisen as to the statement of facts contained therein, and it will not appear officially as a part of Prof. Hanus's findings.

It is yet too early, of course, to appraise the results of the New York inquiry, but some noteworthy opinions have already found their way into print. About two months ago the New England Journal of Education said in an editorial:¹

It is a long time since there has been such a state of affairs, educationally, in any city as there is in New York at the present time. There seems to have been an "inquiry" into the school system. It has cost about \$70,000. Some of it, at least, does not satisfy those who instigated the inquiry and pay for it. The report, so far as received, is not accepted, is not officially published, and apparently will not be. Apparently—and at present there is naught but appearance to judge from—this inquiry will put an end to all school inquiries; will achieve nothing for the good of the schools or for the enlightenment of the public; will intensify all prejudices for or against the management of the schools of New York City, widening the breach between the city government and the board of education, and magnifying personal prejudices to such a degree that facts and opinions will not be considered for a moment by any one independently of the effect upon the personal equation. Of course, it is possible that a merciful Providence, by whatever name it be recognized, may dispose differently from what men propose, and unseen and undreamed of good may result.

The American School Board Journal is equally doubtful of direct wholesome results, but points to the legislature as a means of securing desirable ends:²

The present unsettled situation is doing vast harm to the New York schools. The best outcome that can be hoped for is some radical legislation which will thoroughly reorganize the New York school government, will reduce the size and improve the character of the board of education, will increase and fix definitely the responsibilities of the superintendent and his associates, and will remove the schools altogether from the influence of the politicians. If this happens the inquiry will be worth while after all.

It must not be supposed that the work of Prof. Hanus and his corps of associates will be fruitless. The educative influence of the reports will be felt in helping to fix school administrative standards in other cities, whatever may be their direct effects in New York City. The series of monographs will no doubt constitute a valuable contribution to city school literature, whether they be fruitful of

¹ Jour. of Educ., 76: 546, Nov. 21, 1912. ² Amer. Sch. Bo. Jour., Jan., 1913, p. 22.

wholesome reforms in the city for which they were intended or not. Lack of space here prevents quotation at length from these monographs, but Prof. Hanus's "Conclusions of the report as a whole" may be presented:

From the foregoing it is clear that, in spite of the progress the public-school system of New York City has made since the consolidation, it is seriously defective. It needs thorough reorganization in respect to its administration by the board of education and the supervisory staff, and in respect to its general system of supervision. The board of education needs a clear conception of its functions and should come to close quarters with its work. In the general system of supervision, helpful cooperation under leadership should replace bureaucratic control. The board of superintendents fulfills no useful function and should be abolished. The board of examiners is decidedly efficient, but needs reorganization to improve and maintain its efficiency. The quality of the teaching, in the elementary schools, at least, is in general not good. The courses of study for elementary schools and for high schools need thoroughgoing revision, and flexibility should replace rigidity in their administration. The compulsory attendance service is inefficient; it emphasizes police functions rather than preventive measures, and the staff needs reorganization on a functional basis. The recognized advantages of intermediate schools in relieving congestion have not led to the further establishment of such schools, and no attempt has been made to realize the exceptional educational opportunities these schools afford; promotions and nonpromotions are not studied so as to yield a real basis for a maximum rate of promotion; part-time classes should be abolished; the estimated need of teachers for elementary schools and for high schools is not based on indisputable and well-organized data. The provision for industrial education is so meager as to be almost negligible; neither industrial nor commercial education is so maintained as to secure the necessary effective cooperation of industry and commerce, and cooperative and continuation schools are wholly absent. Habitual self-scrutiny and an appeal to well-conducted investigations and experiments to secure the necessary data to confirm or refute educational opinion and furnish the regulative for all the activities of the school system and for its adequate financial support are lacking.

IV. CITY SUPERINTENDENTS.

Three phases of the city superintendency engaged the attention of school men during the years 1911 and 1912. These are superintendents' salaries, their tenure of office, and changes of incumbents in a number of important cities.

During the period under consideration a very decided upward trend in superintendents' salaries was noticeable, some of the most important and progressive cities in the country having increased the compensation of their chief professional officers. Of the 50 cities having a population of 100,000 or more, 20 allowed the superintendent an increase, according to the educational directory of the United States Bureau of Education. Among these were the following: Boston, from \$6,000 to \$10,000; New York, from \$10,000 to \$12,000; Pittsburgh, from \$7,000 to \$9,000; Buffalo, from \$5,000 to \$7,500; Cincinnati from \$6,000 to \$10,000; St. Louis, from \$7,000

to \$8,000; Seattle, from \$6,500 to \$7,500; New Orleans, from \$4,000 to \$5,000. As against these increases there were only two decreases, and the lower salaries were for new men assuming office.

With the probable exception of the presidents of colleges and universities, regarding whose salaries the Bureau of Education has not complete data, superintendents of schools in the larger cities are at the present time the highest paid class of educators in America. The average salary in cities of 100,000 population and over is \$5,385. In cities of 50,000 to 100,000 population it is \$3,502. While the figures showing salaries of presidents of all higher institutions of learning are not available for comparison here, those for the presidents of State universities were published by the Bureau of Education in 1912.¹ According to this report the average annual amount received by such officers was \$5,877, the excess over the superintendent's salary in the large city being only \$492. The average salary of chief State school officers is \$3,272, or \$230 less than that of superintendents in cities of 50,000 to 100,000 population. Thus, when compared with that of other educational experts, the salary of the city's chief school officer attained very respectable proportions.

The tendency to raise the salaries of city superintendents has not been confined to any particular section of the country. On the Pacific coast, for example, are found the cities of Los Angeles and Seattle, whose superintendents receive \$6,000 and \$7,500, respectively. Not counting as southern the border cities of Baltimore, Washington, Louisville, and St. Louis, there still remain in the South, Birmingham and New Orleans, which pay \$5,000 each.

The abstract question of the tenure of office of city superintendents has evoked no great discussion in recent years, but some intelligent attention has been given the subject, and an occasional law has been enacted increasing tenure. The Pennsylvania law, for example, provides for a term of four years, the former maximum period for which a choice could be made having been only three. There seems to be no great demand for authority to elect for a longer period than four or five years, but on the other hand the limitation to a period of a single year would seem to need amendment to permit of choice for a longer time. Placing upon the superintendent the necessity of having to stand annually for reelection makes his situation too precarious and militates against his working at the highest degree of efficiency. Despite this limitation in some cities, however, the condition usually adjusts itself and many superintendents who have to stand for reelection at short intervals are found to have had long periods of service. The average length of service of the incumbents in the 50 cities of 100,000 population or more is approximately $7\frac{1}{2}$ years. Among these are some cases that are notable. The names of

¹ See U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1912, No. 33.

a few superintendents in the larger cities and the year of original appointment as reported to the Bureau of Education are presented here in the order of length of service:

Kansas City, Mo.—James M. Greenwood-----	1874
Albany, N. Y.—Charles W. Cole ¹ -----	1878
Birmingham, Ala.—John H. Phillips-----	1883
Oakland, Cal.—John W. McClymonds-----	1889
Columbus, Ohio—Jacob A. Shawan-----	1889
Seattle, Wash.—Frank B. Cooper-----	1891
Jersey City, N. J.—Henry Snyder-----	1892
Minneapolis, Minn.—Charles M. Jordan-----	1892
Buffalo, N. Y.—Henry P. Emerson-----	1893
Bridgeport, Conn.—Charles W. Deane-----	1893

Including his term of service in Brooklyn, Supt. William H. Maxwell has held a professional administrative position in the schools of New York City for 25 years. According to the "Educational directory," to which reference has been made, the longest period of service of all the superintendencies in the United States is that of William W. Cottingham, of Easton, Pa., who is reported to the bureau as having received his original appointment in 1853.

Some of the notable changes in superintendencies during the year 1911-12 were as follows: Stratton D. Brooks, from Boston to the presidency of the University of Oklahoma; Frank B. Dyer, from Cincinnati to Boston; Sylvanus L. Heeter, from St. Paul to Pittsburgh; Milton C. Potter, from Pueblo to St. Paul; Francis A. Soper, from Baltimore City College to Baltimore; Charles E. Chadsey, from Denver to Detroit; J. M. H. Frederick, from Lakewood to Cleveland; Jacob G. Collicott, from Tacoma to Indianapolis; Ellis U. Graff, from principal of high school to superintendent, Omaha; Percy M. Hughes, from assistant superintendent in Washington to Syracuse.

V. THE COURSE OF STUDY.

Owing to the constantly changing demands upon the school, the curriculum is of perennial interest to the school man and frequent revisions or modifications are found necessary. The addition of some new subject, or the elimination of a nonessential or less essential topic, is a constant source of concern to the superintendent. Some phases of the course of study which have recently engaged the attention of school administrative officers are: The elimination of nonessentials, shortening the elementary course, departmental teaching in the upper grades, differentiation in grammar-school courses, the introduction of European history, moral training, and such subjects as withdrawals and retardation during the progress through the curriculum.

¹ Since deceased.

SIMPLIFICATION OF THE COURSE OF STUDY.

For some years educators have been advocating the enrichment of the course of study. This demand arose because of changed conditions in American life—urban life instead of rural; growth in wealth, population, and territory; inventions, scientific discoveries, the disappearance of the apprentice system, and the introduction of the factory system. The traditional three R's were not broad enough to prepare for complete living during the latter part of the nineteenth century. Accordingly, there were added to the course new subjects, such as physiology, physical training, nature study, manual training, music, and drawing.

No one would think seriously of eliminating any of these from the twentieth century course of study, yet the question arises, How is it possible for a child to assimilate all the material of these subjects in an eight-year course? Many school men began almost simultaneously to advocate, not the elimination of whole subjects, but the elimination of certain subject matter. Some topics in arithmetic were found to be useless for practical purposes; the material in American history was voluminous and unwieldy; many facts in geography had no significance; and many of the topics in physiology had no bearing on proper methods of living. The school, because of its inertia, was slow in adapting such vast accumulations of material to child life; but gradually superintendents began to eliminate a little here and a little there. Now many courses of study indicate definitely what topics are to be omitted, or they indicate a minimum amount to be taught in each subject, but omitting numerous topics once included. Where courses of study are not definitely planned, the suggestion is generally found that nonessentials be eliminated.

To show what is actually done to simplify the course of study, the following quotations are presented from letters in answer to an inquiry as to what eliminations have been made in arithmetic, history, etc.:

Oakland, Cal.—We have eliminated from our arithmetic work very much of compound numbers, using only a few of the more common tables. We have eliminated all of stocks, bonds, etc.; cube root; mensuration, excepting the simpler forms; and the more difficult parts of percentage. In our arithmetic I think we are able to promote more pupils, and so far as I can see, the pupils know as much about arithmetic as they ever did.

Helena, Mont.—In history we are not placing very much stress upon explorations and discoveries. We have also reduced the amount of time that has been given heretofore to the details of battles. More attention is given to matters pertaining to cause and effect or the "why" of history and to those thoughts of history which have to do with the making of government and the modification of our laws from time to time. We are placing less stress on dates, except a few pivotal dates.

Leavenworth, Kans.—The effect [of eliminating subject matter] has been decidedly marked and quite satisfactory. My teachers are deeply interested in the movement, because its good results are so apparent to them.

La Crosse, Wis.—In the year before these changes [elimination of non-essentials] were instituted there were 79 per cent of the pupils promoted, the following year 87 per cent, last year 89 per cent, and in the semester just closed [January, 1913] 93 per cent. Whether this gain is due wholly to changes in the course of study may be disputed, but the changes certainly helped.

Winona, Minn.—In grammar we have decreased very largely the amount of technical grammar studied in the grades and have transferred the emphasis to forms of expression, written and oral. Conjugations, declensions, modes, etc., receive little attention, and this little only in connection with composition work. The quality of the work done has, I believe, been improved.

Knoxville, Tenn.—The effect [of eliminating nonessentials] has been good upon the schools and has resulted in increased promotions.

McKeesport, Pa.—Our change in arithmetic has not been due so much to the topics we have eliminated as the grade of the work to suit the abilities of the children at the different stages of their progress. We have eliminated difficult fractions, including complex fractions; difficult work in the lowest common multiple and greatest common divisor; difficult work in papering, plastering, carpeting, etc.; the trapezoid and trapezium; linear and surveyor's square measure; Troy and apothecaries weights; all interest except to find interest by 6 per cent method; compound interest; partial payments, except the very simple kind, and annual interest; cube root; difficult problems in compound proportion; progressions; annuities. The work in arithmetic is confined to a great amount of simple work within the comprehension of the child.

Charleston, S. C.—My belief is that the quality of the work is improving and that the number of repeaters is being diminished [since the course of study was simplified].

The above are typical of the letters received by the bureau. A few schools report that little has been done to simplify the course. In some courses are found such topics as average of payments, foreign exchange, domestic exchange, detailed study of wars, the exact location of small cities, technical physiology, etc. The tendency, however, is away from a curriculum crowded with nonessentials.

SHORTENED ELEMENTARY COURSES.

Several years ago many cities had nine grades in the elementary school; now very few have more than eight, and some but seven. The tendency is undoubtedly toward shorter and simpler elementary courses. It was claimed that the ninth grade was to a great extent a review of the work done in the seventh and eighth; that it led nowhere; that pupils became indifferent and dropped out of school. One of the small cities in Pennsylvania that had a nine-year elementary course adopted an eight-year course in 1908. There were at that time 100 pupils in the high school; last year about 400 were enrolled. Those who entered from the ninth grade were over age and indifferent. The entering classes from the eighth grade take up

high-school work more easily than those who entered from the ninth grade. Under the ninth-grade plan there was a great loss in numbers between the eighth and ninth grades, as well as between the ninth grade and the first year of the high school.

Kansas City, Mo., stands out prominently as an example of a city having but seven grades in the elementary course. In his report for 1911 Supt. J. M. Greenwood writes:

Owing to a seven years' course of study in the elementary schools, from 70 to 75 per cent of the pupils who complete that course enter high school, and more than 13 per cent of all our pupils are in high school.

The reduction of the number of grades is a topic often discussed at State and national teachers' associations. No statistics are at hand, however, to show the exact number of schools that have more or fewer than eight grades. New England was for many years the stronghold of the nine-year plan. Practically all cities of any size in New England now have eight years, and a few have adopted the "six-and-six" plan.

DEPARTMENTAL TEACHING IN THE GRAMMAR GRADES.

During the eighties a few schools made trial of departmental teaching in the elementary schools. The Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1886-87, in summing up the results of these experiments, says:

The attempts to adapt the methods of high-school instruction to the elementary grades have not been attended with conspicuous success.

The movement at present, however, is toward departmental instruction in the seventh and eighth grades. Some superintendents have extended the plan to include even the fifth and sixth grades.

The movement, no doubt, has been given impetus by the fact that departmental teaching in New York City has proved a success. This method of organization was introduced into the schools of that city about 1900. At present three-fifths of its grammar schools are so organized. Even in the lower grades of some of the New York City schools a limited form of the plan is in use. A teacher who is proficient in some subject, such as music or drawing, may teach in three or four rooms, while the teachers of these rooms take turns in having charge of her work in other subjects.

In the report of the New Orleans schools for 1912, it is stated that the experiment of teaching under the departmental plan was tried and that the results were such that the experiment was continued for another year.

Among the many cities that have recently adopted the plan are: Aberdeen, S. Dak.; Lincoln, Nebr.; Trenton, Mo.; Johnstown, Pa.;

Meadville, Pa.; Washington, Pa.; Hackensack, N. J.; Bloomfield, N. J.; Jackson, Mich.; Huntington, W. Va.

The organization of the grammar grades on the departmental plan is made comparatively easy in New York City by the fact that the buildings are large and that there are many seventh and eighth grade classes in each. In the smaller cities, where the buildings are small, there may not be more than one seventh and one eighth grade in each building. The teachers of these grades could and sometimes do exchange rooms, but the plan has generally been to bring all the seventh and eighth grade pupils together into one building under a grammar-school principal. It is thus evident that the small city with but a few rooms in each grade building has to solve an entirely different problem from that of a metropolitan city with its large grade buildings.

Some of the smaller cities use a high-school building which the high school has outgrown, and a few have erected buildings for the grammar grades. Other cities arrange the districts so that rooms are made available in a building centrally located, while still others use a few rooms in the high-school buildings.

This plan is, no doubt, a step toward the "six-and-six plan," which is discussed in another part of this chapter.

On the whole, school officials and teachers who have experimented with departmental teaching consider it a step forward in school organization. It is claimed that teachers can do better work, and that the pupil enters upon his work in the high school with more confidence and with less likelihood of failure. On the other hand, it is pointed out that the pupils lose the personal influence of the single classroom teacher. A State school official recently asked, "Is not the plan for the teacher rather than for the pupil?" So long as school administration is an empirical science, no theories formulated in an office can answer the question. Many experiments must be made with the plan to prove whether it is efficient.

DIFFERENTIATION IN GRAMMAR-SCHOOL COURSES.

In some cities the courses in the grammar school have been differentiated. Among these are New Britain, Conn.; Crookston, Minn.; Bloomfield, N. J.; and Buffalo, N. Y.

New Britain, Conn.—Four courses are offered: (1) A general course; (2) a household arts course; (3) a practical arts course; (4) a business and English course. The choice of courses is not left to the pupil alone, but is in all cases subject to the approval of both the parent and the principal of the school. Changes are permitted from a given course to any other upon the request of the parent.

Crookston, Minn.—Three courses are offered: (1) Preparation for the academic high school; (2) preparation for a commercial course; (3) preparation for an industrial course.

Bloomfield, N. J.—Two courses are offered: (1) A course preparatory to high school, which includes the subjects of arithmetic and algebra, English and Latin, United States history, geography, physiology, penmanship, manual training or domestic art, and drawing; (2) a course preparatory to a vocation, which includes the subjects of arithmetic and business practice, English, United States history, geography, physiology, manual training or domestic art, and drawing.

Buffalo, N. Y.—In two schools an elementary course of six years has been introduced with an opportunity to specialize after the sixth year along three different lines, regular, industrial, and commercial. If this plan appears to meet the needs of pupils better than the old-line organization, it will be introduced in other schools.

EUROPEAN HISTORY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Another movement to which attention may be called is that of introducing European history into the elementary school. In 1910 the American Historical Association published the report of the committee of eight, which had been appointed by the association to investigate the subject of history in the elementary school. The committee recommended that such European history as would form a background to American history be taught in the sixth grade.

Some States, such as Pennsylvania and Maine, have incorporated essential features of the report in the course of study for the elementary schools. Numerous cities have adopted the recommendations of the report.

Several publishing houses report a growing tendency to introduce European history in some form into the elementary grades. One house writes that the movement has been more decided in the East than in the West.

Among the many cities that have adopted European history, either for supplementary reading or for regular class work, are: Syracuse, N. Y.; Alliance, Ohio; Danville, Ky.; Greenville, Pa.; Milford, Mass.; Providence, R. I.; Elkhart, Ind.; Kalamazoo, Mich.; Duluth, Minn.; Mobile, Ala.; New York, N. Y.; Montpelier, Vt.; Brookline, Mass.

MORAL TRAINING.

Some educators express doubt as to the advisability of attempting formal moral instruction in the schools, while others urge the attempt, but all agree that one of the functions of the school is to secure

proper moral conduct. Religious instruction is practically barred from the American school, because of denominational differences of opinion, but there seems to be little reason why moral principles should not be inculcated. The method of procedure, however, is not agreed upon and comparatively few schools attempt formal instruction of this character.

In Schenectady, N. Y., a graded course of study has been prepared and systematic training is given. St. Louis also has an outline course of study, and 30 minutes per week are devoted to moral lessons. In Chicago the idea prevails that formal instruction in virtues is not desirable, but an abstract of moral principles and ideals is outlined for all grades and moral direction is attempted. Kansas City, Mo.; Richmond, Va.; Houston, Tex.; and some other cities have forms of moral instruction.

Some interesting devices have appeared for the inculcation of ethical principles. In Lexington, Ky., children are encouraged to hunt for the best in life by a system of "books of golden deeds." Supt. M. A. Cassidy thus describes the system in practice there:¹

The great and noble ideals, past and present, are ever the teachers of the young. In some measure to meet the demand for ideals in the lives of the Lexington children, thus helping to model their own, and so help them to become better men and women by the subtle inculcation of moral and civic righteousness, we have had for several years in every grade in our public schools a book of Golden Deeds. This is only a blank book, of moderate size, with "Golden Deeds" printed on its cover with letters of gold. In their reading, in their study of history and biography, and in their contact with life, the pupils are encouraged to treasure in their minds the good deeds and noble impulses which they may discover and recite them to their companions in the grade. Ten minutes are daily devoted to this as an opening exercise. The deeds found and brought to the grades by the children are illustrative of obedience, honesty, truthfulness, unselfishness, sympathy, consecration to duty, usefulness, industry, perseverance, patience, self-respect, purity, self-control, self-reliance, fortitude, courage, heroism, ambition, temperance, courtesy, kindness to brute and human, justice, fidelity, determination, patriotism, and other traits that go to make character that is esteemed by civilized society. If the deeds so recited are deemed worthy by a vote of the grade they are recorded in the "Book of Golden Deeds." The children take great pride in these exercises, and many of the books are works of art. The enrolling is beautifully done, and there are numerous pictorial illustrations of the deeds recorded.

The drama, motion pictures and lantern slides, story telling, and "school cities" in which self-government is promoted, are other forms of inculcating correct ethical standards which are found in some cities. Newark, N. J.; Houston, Tex.; Hayward, Cal.; and a few other cities have forms of student self-government.

The Moral Education Board, with headquarters in Baltimore, is an organization for the promotion of ethical instruction throughout the country.

¹ Religious Education, 5 : 702, February, 1911.

TIME SCHEDULES.

City superintendents usually indicate in their respective courses of study the amount of time to be devoted each day to each study. This plan, it is claimed, prevents a teacher from emphasizing those subjects in which she is especially interested, to the exclusion of other subjects of equal importance. The following table gives the average time in minutes per week devoted to each study in each grade in 10 cities—Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Rochester, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, St. Louis, Chicago, Milwaukee, and San Francisco:

Average time (in minutes) per week devoted to each study in elementary grades.¹

Studies.	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Reading.....	491	437	341	259	213	206	186	189
Spelling.....	84	100	92	84	85	82	67	62
Grammar.....							123	134
Language and composition.....	131	143	156	164	191	187	151	155
Arithmetic.....	120	169	189	205	208	216	220	220
Writing.....	82	91	85	81	75	75	60	53
History.....				45	100	117	121	140
Geography.....			110	139	150	153	114	110
Music.....	71	69	68	66	73	66	65	65
Drawing.....	134	126	130	130	84	85	81	81
Manual training.....					73	71	105	103

¹ An. rep. of supt., Cleveland, Ohio, 1909-10, p. 16.

The Pennsylvania State Board of Education recently appointed a committee to study the time value of the elementary school studies for the purpose of determining the proper basis for distributing the school time among the various subjects of the course of study. Sub-committees composed of superintendents, principals, and teachers have been appointed to help collect data for the general committee. When the report is completed, it should be of value to superintendents who assign their teachers definite time schedules.

VI. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

While not confined to cities, industrial education, as the term is now used, is found more in cities than elsewhere and should come in for its share of treatment in any survey of urban education which purports to cover the field. Within the past two years three phases of this type of training have been uppermost in the interest and attention of its advocates. These are: (1) Cooperative courses and continuation schools; (2) a dual system of control under which it is proposed to separate, in large measure at least, the administration of industrial schools from that of common schools; and (3) Federal

aid to industrial training. To these the closely related subject of vocational guidance might be added.

Cooperative courses and continuation schools or classes received great momentum from the visit to America in the latter part of 1910 and the early part of 1911 of Dr. Georg Kerschensteiner, director of schools, Munich, Bavaria. The appearance of this distinguished educator at the meeting of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, held in Boston, in November, 1910, and his subsequent tour through other important cities did more than any other single event to crystallize thought on cooperation between school and employer as the most effectual means of working out the problem of industrial training. True, the cooperative course was already in existence in a few places, and the day continuation school was making its appearance at the time of the Boston meeting, but the increased attention which was then and subsequently directed to these types of schools has undoubtedly had much to do with their spread to all parts of the country. There are now about two dozen cities in the United States in which cooperative courses in some form have been organized, and continuation schools are to be found in even more localities. Some cities in which cooperative courses have recently been established are: Passaic, N. J.; Allentown and York, Pa.; Lansing, Mich.; Hammond, Ind.; and McComb City, Miss. Continuation schools have taken root in Wisconsin, where laws were enacted in 1911 providing for their establishment. According to a recent statement of Mr. H. E. Miles, chairman of the committee on industrial education of the National Association of Manufacturers, who is a resident of Wisconsin, there have been established in that State 25 schools of the "continuation" species. Other States are following the example of Wisconsin in the proposal of similar laws. Among these are Illinois and Washington.

A question which remains unsettled in the United States is whether industrial education shall be administered as a department of the common school system and under the administrative authorities of the common schools or as a separate and parallel system under distinct administrative authorities. That is to say, Shall we have a unified system of administration of all schools, whatever may be the type of school organized or the form of instruction given, or shall we adopt a dual system similar to that of Germany and some other European countries? There are arguments on both sides of the question, but it is one with which there has not yet been sufficient experience in America to warrant positive conclusions. In 1906 the Legislature of Massachusetts, pursuant to the recommendation of a temporary commission appointed the year before by the governor, created a commis-

sion on industrial education and conferred upon it the power to establish independent industrial schools. Thus the initial step toward industrial training in this country was along the line of the German system, but in 1909 this commission was consolidated with the State board of education and the dual system of control passed away in that State. Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey have had only the unified system. Wisconsin's modification of the dual system was inaugurated only in 1911.

Those who favor the new departure seem to proceed on the theory (1) that dual administration has worked well in Germany and some other parts of Europe and will therefore work well in this country, and (2) that more practical administrators are needed for the industrial schools than for the common schools. They have been charged with regarding the present administrative agencies as incapable of handling industrial training.

Those opposed to the dual system urge that the present school machinery is capable of handling vocational education, and that therefore two sets of school administrators would be an unnecessary duplication and a cumbersome arrangement. It is further urged that the common schools would be weakened, as has been the case in some sections of Europe; that class, or caste, distinctions would be intensified; that the industrial school, under separate control, would tend too much to the mechanical and would neglect the "theoretical studies"; that teachers would be drawn to the vocational schools from the common schools, to the detriment of the latter.

However forceful the arguments on either side of this question may appear to the reader, the dual system of control has already entered upon a period of trial and earnest effort to make it a success in this country. Writing of the results thus far of the new régime in Wisconsin, Mr. H. E. Miles, to whom reference has already been made, recently said:

In any bright, progressive, up-to-date community a substantially perfect industrial school for children of 14 to 16 years of age can be started in from 4 to 12 weeks, with teachers of superior quality, who will incidentally exert a reflex influence upon our present out-of-touch, out-of-date school workers to the infinite betterment of the present common schools. There is nothing of speculation in this statement. It is a statement of simple fact demonstrated in most, if not all, of the places where it has been tried. Such a school was started in Racine, Wis., about a year ago on about 48 hours' notice from the State authorities and on 4 weeks' preparation by the local authorities. Twenty-five such schools were started in other places in Wisconsin last September. In Sheboygan, for instance, a bright, prosperous industrial community of 40,000 people, the class in woodworking is taught by a splendid German of middle age, with heart as young as the children's. He was an apprentice in Germany; then a journeyman; and then, in this country, journeyman, foreman,

and employer, successively. * * * At the end of six weeks there were 350 children, 14 to 16 years old, from the industries in this school, with 100 on the waiting list, and it is estimated that still 150 more will come in when the authorities fully enforce the law, as they must.

The bill for Federal aid to industrial education which in different forms has been before the United States Congress for several years has not as yet become a law, but friends of the measure who have so untiringly sought its passage have now increased grounds for hope of success. Within the past two years two events of importance have occurred in the progress of this measure toward, as its advocates hope, its ultimate passage. One of these was the introduction of a similar bill by Representative Lever, of South Carolina, and its passage through the lower House of Congress at the regular session of 1912. The "Lever bill," however, was confined in its provisions to the promotion of instruction in agriculture and home economics through extension departments in the several State agricultural colleges, and may therefore be considered as only a step in the direction of Federal aid to industrial education proper.

The second important event in this connection was the more recent passage through the Senate of the bill introduced by Senator Page, of Vermont, and widely known as the "Page bill." This measure contains all the important provisions of the older and well-known "Davis bill," "Doliver bill," and others of like character, which have already received notice from time to time in the publications of the Bureau of Education. When the Congress came to an end the "Lever bill" and the "Page bill" were still in the hands of a conference committee of the two Houses of Congress, and no final action was taken on either.

VII. KINDERGARTENS.

One of the conspicuous features of the progress of city schools has been the recent extension of the kindergarten system. For many years the kindergarten has been attached to the elementary school without being "adjusted." It has been looked upon with suspicion by many elementary school-teachers. On the other hand, kindergarten teachers have often entered protests against the methods of the primary school when the kindergarten children did not fit in with the formal methods of the first grade.

The tendency now is to make the kindergarten an integral part of the elementary course and to harmonize kindergarten and primary methods. To bring about a proper adjustment between the two schools, Supt. F. B. Dyer, of Boston, in an address to the Boston teachers, said¹ that he hoped to arrange some way by which the

¹ Kindergarten-Primary Magazine, October, 1912, p. 57.

kindergarten teachers could have the first-grade children for three or four afternoons a week and use with them methods of the same kind as those to which they had been accustomed before their graduation into "real school." In Los Angeles, Cal., the first primary grade has been placed under the supervision of the kindergarten supervisor, so that there may be no abrupt break between the kindergarten and the elementary school.

Nearly every city reports an increasing number of kindergartens. In Chicago a room for a kindergarten is always included in plans for a new building. During every school year there are frequent requests from individual members of the board of education, from members of the city council, from women's clubs, and from parents' associations that a kindergarten be established in this or that one of the 90 schools in which there is not a kindergarten. "These numerous requests," Mrs. Ella Flagg Young writes in her report for 1912, "and the above recognition indicate that the time has come when a kindergarten should be established in every school."

Supt. W. H. Maxwell, of New York City, writing in the Educational Review, of October, 1912, says that prior to 1898 there were only 7 kindergartens in New York City, and that there are now 843, with over 30,000 pupils.

Supt. H. P. Emerson, of Buffalo, N. Y., in his report for 1911, writes: "We are rapidly reaching the time when every public school will have a kindergarten. There are at present 53 kindergartens, representing 49 schools."

Other cities that have recently added more kindergartens are Salt Lake City, Minneapolis, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, and Pittsburgh.

During the past year kindergarten teachers have studied and discussed the merits of the Montessori method to determine its place in the American kindergarten. A few schools report that some of the Montessori material is used and that they are adapting the method to their needs. The reports are so few and fragmentary that no conclusions can be reached as to the progress of the "method" in the public schools of this country. It is evident that city superintendents and teachers are not adopting the method or any part of it without investigation.

VIII. TEACHERS' SALARIES AND PENSIONS.

A thoroughgoing statistical study of teachers' salaries has not been made in this country since the publication in 1905 of the report of the committee of the National Education Association on "Salaries, tenure, and pensions of public-school teachers in the United States." In the absence of such a study at this time it is impossible to show

with any degree of accuracy the progress made through the nationwide effort to secure better pay for teaching service. The steadily increasing cost of living has made necessary an advance in all salaries, and it is known in a general way that teachers have shared in this advance, but there is little definite information to show whether the teacher has relatively gained or lost ground when his salary is considered in conjunction with the increased expense at which he must live.

There are some data from individual cities which indicate that the teacher, though still inadequately paid, is surely coming to receive more consideration in the matter of salary. In numerous cities increases were made during the year, and in reports from others are found recommendations by school officials that more pay be granted.¹

The movement to secure for women teachers pay equal to that of men, where the service rendered is substantially of the same character and amount, received decided impetus when on October 30, 1911, a bill became a law authorizing the Board of Education of New York City to adopt by-laws providing for equal pay. Pursuant to the provisions of this act the board of education adopted new schedules of salaries to take effect January 1, 1912. A rule adopted at the same time provides that the salary, including the annual increment, to which a member of the supervising or teaching staff was entitled prior to the passage of the act of 1911, shall not be reduced. In accordance with this policy of the board, a number of the old schedules were reenacted, in order that teachers already in the service might continue their progress to the maximum salary, as in previous years. For elementary teachers coming into the service as beginners the following scheme of payment was adopted and made applicable to both men and women:

¹ The following list, undoubtedly incomplete, of cities in which increases have recently been allowed in one way or another, shows the widespread disposition to give the teacher compensation commensurate with the importance of his work, and to some degree the results achieved in this direction:

Bessemer, Ala.	Des Moines, Iowa.	Worcester, Mass.	Mount Vernon, Ohio.
Selma, Ala.	Muscatine, Iowa.	Bessemer, Mich.	Toledo, Ohio.
Fresno, Cal.	Sioux City, Iowa.	Flint, Mich.	Oklahoma, Okla.
Sacramento, Cal.	Atchison, Kans.	Marquette, Mich.	Allentown, Pa.
San Francisco, Cal.	Kansas City, Kans.	Wyandotte, Mich.	Connellsville, Pa.
Ansonia, Conn.	Louisville, Ky.	Crookston, Minn.	Easton, Pa.
New Britain, Conn.	New Orleans, La.	Duluth, Minn.	Norristown, Pa.
New London, Conn.	Boston, Mass.	Kansas City, Mo.	Pittsburgh, Pa.
Norwich, Conn.	Fitchburg, Mass.	Butte, Mont.	Providence, R. I.
Chicago, Ill.	Gloucester, Mass.	Omaha, Nebr.	Warwick, R. I.
Joliet, Ill.	Malden, Mass.	Albuquerque, N. Mex.	Knoxville, Tenn.
Moline, Ill.	Somerville, Mass.	Binghamton, N. Y.	Memphis, Tenn.
Springfield, Ill.	Springfield, Mass.	Kingston, N. Y.	Dallas, Tex.
Hammond, Ind.	Taunton, Mass.	Goldsboro, N. C.	Houston, Tex.
Council Bluffs, Iowa.	Waltham, Mass.	Columbus, Ohio.	Salt Lake City, Utah.

Salaries of elementary-school teachers, New York City.

SCHEDULES B1, B2, B3, AND B4.

Year of service.	B1. Kinder- gartens and grades 1A to 6B.	B2. Grades 7A to 8B.	B3. Assistants to principals. ¹	B4. Head teachers.
First.....	\$720			
Second.....	720			
Third.....	720			
Fourth.....	780	\$860		
Fifth.....	840	940		
Sixth.....	900	1,020		\$1,060
Seventh.....	960	1,100		1,180
Eighth.....	1,020	1,180		1,300
Ninth.....	1,080	1,260	\$2,100	1,420
Tenth.....	1,140	1,340	2,250	1,540
Eleventh.....	1,200	1,420	2,400	1,660
Twelfth.....	1,260	1,500		1,780
Thirteenth.....	1,320	1,580		1,900
Fourteenth.....	1,380	1,660		2,020
Fifteenth.....	1,440	1,740		2,140
Sixteenth.....	1,500	1,820		2,260
Annual increment.....	60	80	150	120

¹ Heads of departments.

PENSIONS.

According to the report of the committee of the National Education Association on "Salaries, tenure, and pensions," previously referred to, there were in 1905 nine States in which teachers' pension laws of either general or special application were in force. This report, however, omitted any mention of the special law applying to Charleston, S. C., which had been enacted prior to that time. In 1912 there were 26 States having such laws. States having laws of either general or special application in the latter year were as follows:

Arizona. ¹	Louisiana. ²	Oregon. ²
California. ¹	Maryland. ⁶	Pennsylvania. ¹
Colorado. ²	Massachusetts. ⁶	Rhode Island. ⁴
Connecticut. ³	Michigan. ²	South Carolina. ³
Delaware. ²	Minnesota. ⁵	Utah. ⁵
Illinois. ⁴	Nebraska. ²	Vermont. ¹
Indiana. ²	New Jersey. ¹	Virginia. ¹
Kansas. ⁵	New York. ⁷	Wisconsin. ¹
Kentucky. ²	Ohio. ¹	

In general, pension laws are of three kinds, according as they create systems which are noncontributory, compulsory-contributory, or voluntary-contributory from the standpoint of the teacher. In the

¹ General law for entire State.² Applies only to largest city.³ Special laws for certain cities.⁴ General law for certain cities; special law for largest city.⁵ General law for certain cities.⁶ General law for entire State; special law for largest city.⁷ General law for entire State; special laws for certain cities.

first class no part of the teacher's salary is withheld and he makes no contribution to the retirement fund, which in consequence must be derived from public or other sources. The law enacted in 1912 in Arizona, where the State pays the entire annuity, is of this type. The compulsory-contributory plan is the most prevalent. Under this plan a small percentage of the teacher's salary is withheld at the time of payment and is applied to the retirement fund. Usually the more recent laws of this type provide for supplementing the teachers' contributions with public or quasi-public funds. Under the voluntary-contributory plan, teachers may elect to take advantage of the provisions of the retirement system. The Kansas act, approved March 14, 1911, belongs to this class.

An examination of the laws of the several States will reveal the fact that, notwithstanding the caution of the American people with regard to the policy of granting civil pensions, there are now no less than 24 States in which public funds are devoted to the payment of annuities to superannuated teachers. Few laws, it is true, specifically provide for taxation for that purpose, but the funds appropriated are public funds nevertheless. In the case, for example, of salaries withheld on account of teachers' absence and applied to the pension fund, the amounts so withheld would otherwise remain in the public treasury and should be expended as other school moneys are expended. Likewise, interest on school-fund balances, which in some cases is applied to the payment of annuities, is clearly a part of the assets of the school system. There can be no question that the trend in legislation is toward the public's sharing with the contributing teachers the burden of a teachers' pension system. With only one exception, every State which enacted a pension law in 1911 or 1912 incorporated a provision for some contribution by the public; and Arizona, the last to enact such a law, provided that the total amount of the annuities granted should be paid out of the State treasury.

IX. HIGH SCHOOLS.

The field of secondary education is too broad and difficult of proper treatment to permit an attempt at exhaustive discussion here, but some phases of high-school activity which have been most in the public mind may be briefly noticed. These are two-year or other shorter courses, junior high schools, and high-school fraternities.

SHORTER COURSES.

School administrators have learned that more pupils will be reached if short, practical courses are offered in the high school than if adherence to the rigid four-year course is insisted upon. Some chil-

dren, because of home conditions, age, and other considerations, know that they never will be able to complete the traditional high-school course, so drop out of school altogether at the end of the eighth grade. In a number of cities two-year and other shorter courses have been provided for such pupils. Preparation for commercial and industrial pursuits and other vocational training are usually given in these abridged forms of the high-school curriculum. From reports received by the Bureau of Education these shorter periods of secondary school work are proving popular without affecting attendance in four-year courses. The emphasis in recent years upon vocational training in the public schools has no doubt contributed to the new trend toward the shorter period of practical high-school education. At least the trend has been so strong in that direction that the two-year course is now an established fact and in all probability has come to stay. Among the numerous cities which now have practical two-year courses are South Bend, Ind.; Dubuque, Iowa; New Britain, Conn.; Freeport, Ill.; San Francisco, Cal.; Pittsburgh, Pa.; North Attleboro, Mass.; Chicago, Ill.; Kansas City, Kans.

JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

In 1905 the department of secondary education of the National Education Association appointed a committee on six-year courses. Reports were received and adopted in 1907, 1908, and 1909. These reports indicated that the sentiment for the "six-and-six" division was growing. Since the adoption of the 1909 report there is every evidence of a rapidly growing tendency toward a shorter elementary course and a high-school course of six years divided into two parts of three years each, known as the junior and the senior high school. The object is to give a child the tools of an education in the first six years. It is argued that, since the seventh and eighth grades as now organized repeat to a great extent the work of the fifth and sixth, the pupil gets nowhere, and that he is thus cheated out of that degree of advancement to which he is entitled at the end of the eighth grade. It is also claimed that the ninth grade would do better work if it were organized in a separate department with the seventh and eighth grades, as the pupils of this grade are often hopelessly lost when thrown in with pupils three years their senior.

Under the "six-and-six" plan a few of the present high-school subjects, such as the languages, algebra, and elementary science, are brought down into the seventh and eighth grades. It is pointed out that this arrangement will permit a pupil in the junior high school to prepare for any of the courses offered in the senior school, thus bridging the gap now existing between the eighth and the ninth

grades. A pupil who in all probability will never go to college would be given subjects leading to some vocational course in the senior high school, while the pupil who intends to enter college would be given in the junior high school subjects preparing him for any one of the college preparatory courses in the senior school. A pupil would thus continue a subject long enough for it to be of some educational value. Algebra could be completed a year earlier, and the foundation for the study of physics and chemistry could be firmly laid. The claim is therefore made that the American boy would, under the "six-and-six" plan, gain a year or two over the present arrangement.

In order to discover what the practice throughout the country really is in regard to the "six-and-six" plan of organization, the Commissioner of Education recently sent the following inquiry to 200 city superintendents:

[*Inquiry from the Commissioner of Education.*]

1. Have you in your city a school which combines the seventh and eighth grades or the eighth grade alone with one or more years of high-school work?

If so, please indicate which grades comprise the junior, or intermediate, school and which the senior school, or high school proper.

By what name do you designate the junior school (as "intermediate" or "junior high" school)?

2. Is the "intermediate" or "junior high" school organized as a separate entity, with its own principal, etc.?

Is this school placed in a separate building?

If not organized as a separate entity, is this school a constituent part of the elementary schools or of the secondary schools?

3. If the seventh and eighth grades are not combined with any year or years of the high school, is one or both organized similarly to high schools?

Please indicate briefly the plan of organization.

4. Have you organized the first year or the first and second years of the high school as a separate school?

5. Please describe briefly any school in your system, other than those indicated above, which constitutes a near approach to the "six-and-six" plan of school organization.

Courses of study, special reports, or other literature descriptive of schools of the type indicated may be forwarded to the Bureau of Education with the inclosed penalty slips.

One hundred and fifty-seven papers were returned with answers to all or part of these questions. Of these, 31 have adopted the "six-and-six" plan or some modification of it; 7 are seriously considering some such plan; and 45 others have departmental instruction in grammar-school work without making any claim to a "six-and-six" organization.

The following table, based upon the first two questions, shows the plans of those who have reorganized their schools with the junior and senior high-school idea in view:

Plan of reorganized high schools.

Cities.	Junior high school consists of grades—	Senior high school consists of grades—	Designation of junior school.	Junior school has own principal?	Junior school has separate building?
Los Angeles, Cal.	7, 8, 9	10, 11, 12, 13, 14	Intermediate.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Oakland, Cal.	7, 8 do do	Yes.....	Yes.
Macon, Ga.	5, 6, 7	9, 10, 11, 12 do	No.....	No.
Aurora, Ill.	8	Lower high school.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Crawfordsville, Ind.	7, 8	9, 10, 11, 12	Departmental.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Evansville, Ind.	8	9, 10, 11, 12	Junior.....	No.....	No.
Muncie, Ind.	6, 7, 8	Grammar department.....	No.....	No.
Richmond, Ind.	7, 8	9, 10, 11, 12	Junior.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Worcester, Mass.	7, 8	9, 10, 11, 12	Preparatory.....	No.....	No.
Flint, Mich.	7, 8, 9, 10	19, 10, 11, 12	Junior.....	No.....	No.
Grand Rapids, Mich.	7, 8, 9	10, 11, 12	Yes.....	No.
Jackson, Mich.	7, 8, 9	10, 11, 12	Intermediate.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Kalamazoo, Mich.	8, 9, 10	Departmental.....
Muskegon, Mich.	8, 9	10, 11, 12	Intermediate.....	No.....	Annex.
Crookston, Minn.	7, 8, 9	10, 11, 12, 13	Junior.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Lincoln, Nebr.	7, 8, 9	10, 11, 12	Preparatory.....	No.....	No.
Concord, N. H.	7, 8	9, 10, 11	7 sub high, 8 junior.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Camden, N. J.	7, 8, 9, 10	11, 12	No designation.....	No.....	No.
Newark, N. J.	26, 7, 8
Charlotte, N. C.	7	8, 9, 10, 11	Grammar.....
Muskogee, Okla.	8	Eighth grade department.....	(3).....	No.
Columbus, Ohio	7, 8, 9	10, 11, 12	Junior high school.....	Yes.....	No.
Salem, Oreg.	8, 9	10, 11, 12	Junior.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Providence, R. I.	7, 8	9, 10, 11, 12 do	No.....	No.
Charleston, S. C.	8	9, 10, 11, 12	No name.....	No.....	No.
Lead, S. Dak.	8	9, 10, 11, 12	No.....	No.
Dallas, Tex.	8	8, 9, 10, 11	Intermediate.....	No.....	No.
Houston, Tex.	7, 8, 9	10, 11, 12	Junior.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Salt Lake City, Utah	7, 8, 9	Preparatory.....	Yes.....	Yes.
Roanoke, Va.	6, 7, 8	9, 10, 11, 12	Intermediate.....	Yes.....	Yes.

¹ In high school proper.² In boys' industrial school.³ One principal.

From the above it is seen that a large variety of combinations are under trial, including the 6-3-3 plan, the 6-2-4 plan, the 6-3-5 plan, the 6-2-3 plan, and the 7-3-2 plan. In all this experimentation it appears that there is a movement toward a six-year elementary course followed by a six-year high-school course; but it is not so evident how the six-year high school shall be organized—whether on a 2-4 plan or a 3-3 plan. The tendency, however, is probably toward the 3-3 plan. The Pennsylvania State Educational Association recently passed a resolution favoring the centralization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. The sentiment in many of the Western States is growing rapidly for a six-year high school divided on the 3-3 plan.

Just as there is no unanimity of agreement as to how the six-year high school shall be organized, so there is no unanimity as to what subjects shall be offered in the junior high school. The following courses are given to show what is offered in a junior high school of three years and in one of two years. Columbus, Ohio, is taken as a type of the three-year course and Oakland, Cal., as that of the two-year course.

Course of study in Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio.

SEVENTH GRADE.

	Periods weekly. ¹
Reading	3-5
Classics	2
Spelling	3-5
Writing	2-5
Arithmetic	4-5
Grammar	4-5
Geography (incidentally in connection with history).	
History	4-5
Physical culture	2-5
Drawing	2
Manual training	2
Music	2
Physiology and hygiene	1
German	3-4

EIGHTH GRADE.

	Periods weekly.
Reading	3-5
Spelling	2-4
Writing	2-4
Mathematics	3-4
Grammar	4-5

EIGHTH GRADE—continued.

	Periods weekly. ¹
Geography (incidentally in connection with history).	
History (U. S.)	4
Elementary civics	1
Physical culture	4
Drawing	2
Manual training	1-2
Music	2
Physiology and hygiene	1
German	3-5
Latin (may be taken by exceptionally strong pupils)	5

NINTH GRADE.

	Periods weekly.
English	5
Latin or German	5
Algebra	5
Elementary science, 2 months; physical geography, remainder of year	5
Drawing	2

Schedule of studies for intermediate schools, Oakland, Cal.

SEVENTH GRADE, A and B.

	Periods per week.
English (including composition, spelling, grammar, penmanship)	5
Arithmetic	3
Geography	2½
History	2½
Music	1
Drawing	1½
Physical training	½
Manual training and domestic science and art	4

Electives: Choose one.

	Periods per week.
Latin	5
German	5
Typing with English drill	5

EIGHTH GRADE, A and B.

	Periods per week.
English	5
Arithmetic and accounting	3
Geography	2
History and civics	3
Music	1
Physical training and hygiene	2
Manual training and domestic science and art	4

Electives: Choose one.

	Periods per week.
Latin	5
German	5
Typing with English drill	5
Freehand or mechanical drawing	5

HIGH-SCHOOL FRATERNITIES.

One of the many problems that have been vexing school administrators for the past few years is that of the high-school fraternity.

¹ Length of period, 40 minutes.

The question has been whether high-school fraternities are to be ignored, controlled, or prohibited. The tendency has been, however, for State legislatures to enact laws and for school boards to make rules prohibiting the organization of secret societies in the public schools. The following States have enacted laws either expressly prohibiting such societies or giving school boards power to deal with them: California, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Washington, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, Ohio, Oregon, and Vermont.

One of the most recent acts is that of Michigan, May 1, 1911, which makes it unlawful for any pupil of the public schools to organize, join, or belong to a secret society composed of pupils of such schools; every teacher, principal, or superintendent having knowledge of such organization shall notify the president or secretary of the board of education; the board shall investigate charges, and on finding them true shall give notice to offending pupils to disband and withdraw within 15 days; penalty for failure to obey such notice, suspension until obedience is given; penalty for officer failing or refusing to perform duties imposed, fine of not less than \$10 nor more than \$25.

A number of school boards in States that have no statutory provisions regulating or prohibiting high-school fraternities have made rules attempting to regulate or to prohibit. Among these cities are: Denver, Colo.; Meriden, Conn.; Chicago, Ill.; Covington, Ky.; New Orleans, La.; Lowell, Waltham, and Worcester, Mass.; Kansas City and St. Joseph, Mo.; Butte, Mont.; Oklahoma, Okla.; Reading, Pa.; Salt Lake City, Utah; Madison, Milwaukee, Racine, and Superior, Wis.

The rules of the school boards of Reading, Pa., and Milwaukee, Wis., are given in abridged form to show two general types of regulations:

Reading, Pa.—No member of a secret society shall be eligible to any office of a school organization, be a member of the staff of a school publication, represent the school in any athletic or intellectual contest, or be permitted to take less than four regular class studies each term. (Report, 1911.)

Milwaukee, Wis.—No pupil of a public high school shall retain or acquire membership in any secret society; penalty for violation, suspension or expulsion. (Rules and Regulations, 1911.)

So great has the problem become that appeal has been made to the courts in several States. In every instance, however, the rulings of the board were sustained. In the case of *Dresser v. The Board of Education of St. Croix Falls, Wis.*, the following decision, which is typical of decisions in other States, was rendered:¹

The school authorities may suspend a pupil for an offense committed outside school hours, and not in the presence of the teachers, which has a direct and

immediate tendency to influence the conduct of other pupils while in the school-room, to set at naught the proper discipline of the school, to impair the authority of the teachers and to bring them into ridicule and contempt.

The National Pan-Hellenic Congress of College Fraternities has recently taken a firm stand against high-school fraternities, declaring that they are inimical to the interests of secondary schools. Many letters have been received by the Bureau of Education from school officials asking for copies of the latest State laws and board regulations relating to fraternities. Judging from these letters, the secret society in the high school still exists, with its real or imaginary faults. To what extent State laws and local school-board regulations have controlled or suppressed high-school fraternities it is difficult to say. At least one chapter of the Gamma Delta Psi fraternity—that at Hartford, Conn.—however, has succumbed to growing opposition. The Hartford Daily Courant reports the dissolution of the chapter as follows:

At a meeting of graduate and active members of the Theta Chapter, Gamma Delta Psi fraternity, of the Hartford High School, held recently, it was decided to dissolve the chapter, because of the extreme antagonism shown to secondary school fraternities and secret societies throughout the country. The following resolutions were adopted by vote of a large majority of the members present :

Whereas it appears that the conditions at the Hartford Public High School are not favorable for the active continuance of Theta Chapter, both in view of service to the school and to the undergraduate members of the society; and Whereas it is believed that the existence of the chapter should be terminated when the purposes of its establishment, through circumstances, can not be fulfilled, it is

Resolved, That the committee duly appointed thereunto shall take proper steps for the dissolution of Theta Chapter; and in order that its peculiar activities in the interest of the school may be continued, it is further

Resolved, That the right to publish The Owl Annual be assigned to the high-school authorities and the method of publication to be decided by the principal of the school; that the right to continue amateur theatricals under the title of "The Mask and Triangle Dramatic Club" be likewise and in the same manner assigned; and that the reserve account of the chapter, amounting to \$300, be given to the Hartford Public High School Alumni Association and kept as a separate fund, to be known as "The Theta Chapter Gamma Delta Psi fund" (founded 1894, voluntarily dissolved 1913), from the income of which one or more prizes may be awarded to a senior, either boy or girl, who shall write the best paper on a subject relating to civic duty, the particular title and mode of competition to be determined each year by the principal of the school.

An organization with headquarters at Muncie, Ind., and known as the Grand Inter-Fraternity Council, was effected February 27, 1909, the object of which, according to the preamble to its constitution, is to promote the usefulness of preparatory and high-school fraternities; to place before the public the objects of these organizations; and to create a body by which all grievances between fraternities and school or civil officials can be fairly terminated.

There are affiliated with this council 316 active chapters, representing 21 high-school fraternities. Membership in the organization is restricted to societies of 10 years' standing and having at least three

active chapters. From this it would seem that the high-school fraternity itself is attempting to help relieve the tension.

X. VACATION SCHOOLS.

A few years ago superintendents, teachers, parents, and children would have been astonished at the mention of regular school work during the summer months. Vacation schools existed, but they were planned primarily to educate through play and to keep the children off the streets. Now nearly every large city and even many smaller cities have adopted the plan of conducting summer schools for those who have lost time and for those who are old and strong enough to gain a grade or a half grade. These courses usually cover a period of from six to eight weeks.

The following are a few of the cities that have vacation schools either for making up work or for gaining a grade: Little Rock, Ark.; Pueblo, Colo.; Sioux City, Iowa; Chicago, Ill.; Kansas City, Mo.; Ashtabula, Ohio; Pittsburgh, Pa.; St. Louis, Mo.; New York, N. Y.; Richmond, Va.; Wheeling, W. Va.; Parkersburg, W. Va.

Complete statistics showing the number enrolled in vacation schools have not been collected by the bureau, but judging from fragmentary data at hand it is evident that thousands were enrolled in 1912, and that the enrollment for that year was much in excess of that for 1911.

To give an idea of the work that is done in vacation schools the following quotations are given from New York City (1912) Report:

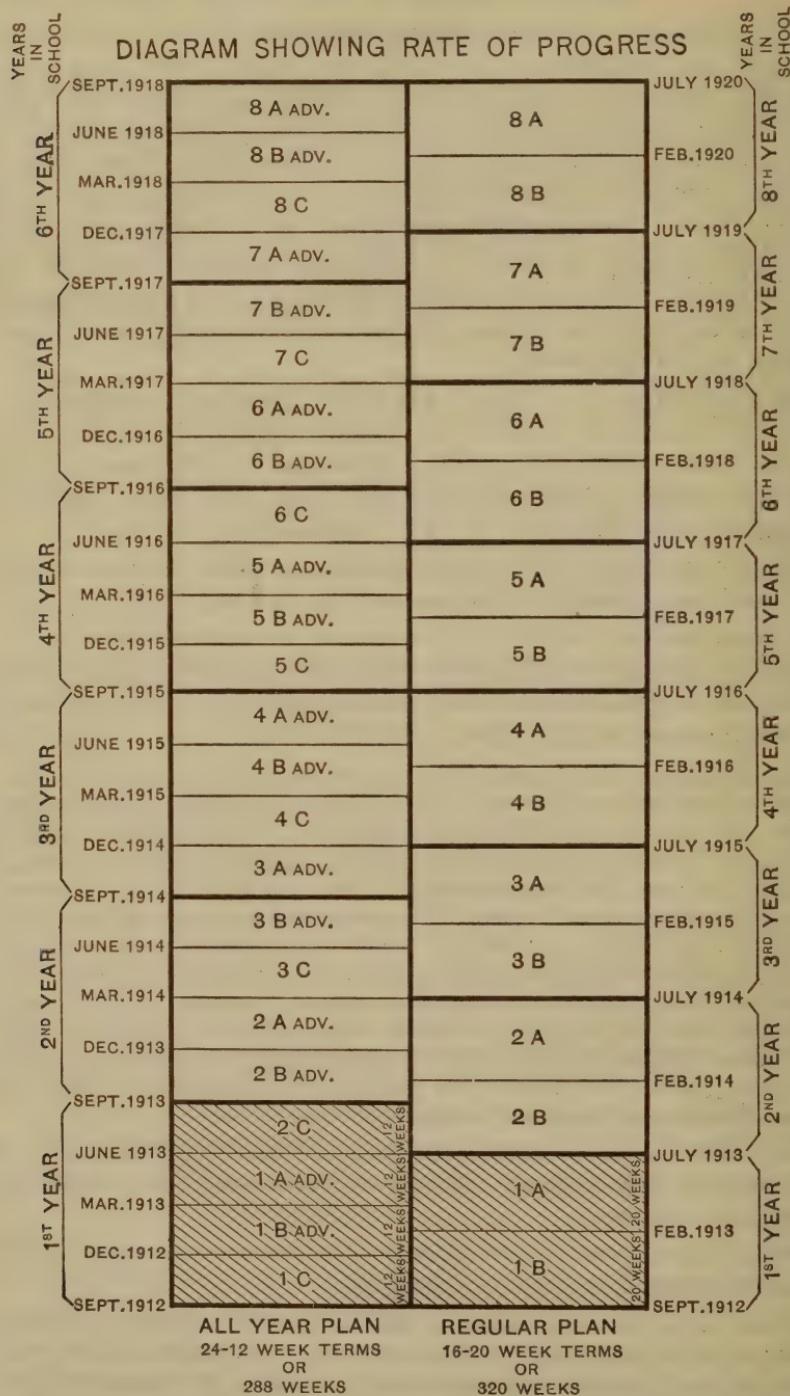
Four thousand four hundred and forty children not promoted in June endeavored to make up deficiencies of the spring term by study in the continuation classes. Of this number, 3,180 were successful. This represents a saving of 1,590 school years for these pupils. Three hundred and five children were "skipped" in June, 1912, on condition that they take up the work of the skipped grade in the continuation classes. Of this number, 262 completed the work successfully. Six hundred and fifty-six pupils were promoted on condition that they repeat the work of the spring term in the continuation classes. Of this number 511 were successful. In all, 5,082 children attempted to gain time in the elementary school by skipping a grade as a result of their work in the continuation classes. Of this number, 4,052 were successful. This means that we have saved these pupils 2,026 school years, provided they successfully maintain themselves. The total saving for all pupils is 3,616 school years.

The following is a general summary of the New York City vacation schools: Number of schools, 33; teachers, 706; registration, 33,983; cost, \$77,048.

Supt. J. M. Greenwood, of Kansas City, Mo., in his report for 1912, says of vacation schools in his own city:

In view of the splendid success of this movement, I would recommend the opening of more schools next vacation for pupils in all grades to make up work which will enable them to advance to the next grade. Summer schools for the grade pupils should be provided for those who need strengthening in the com-

mon branches. If the State undertakes to educate its children, they should be educated, and not turned loose on the streets half a year.



It is claimed that studying during the summer months is no more fatiguing than studying during any other season. In fact, it is

claimed that there is less sickness that can be traced directly to the schoolroom, as the rooms are better ventilated—no artificial heat with closed windows.

An outgrowth of the six-week vacation school is the all-year school, Newark, N. J., is an example of this type. To explain the plan the following extracts are taken from the annual report for 1912:

The organization was easily accomplished by dividing each regular year, or grade, into three divisions, called C, B advanced, and A advanced. The course of study also was divided into three equal parts of 12 weeks each. The following diagram will illustrate how the two plans work side by side:

The foregoing diagram is designed to show the coordination of the all-year plan with the regular plan, the correspondence of the various grades under both plans, the length of time taken by both plans to cover the elementary school course and also the comparative progress of pupils by the two plans.

It will be seen that each year's work under the regular plan is divided into two terms of 20 weeks each; while each year's (or grade's) work under the all-year plan is divided into three terms of 12 weeks each. Thus the C class in each grade will do the first two-thirds of the work of the corresponding B class of the same grade under the regular plan. The B advanced class in each grade will do the last one-third of the work of the corresponding B class and the first one-third of the work of the corresponding A class. The A advanced class will do the last two-thirds of the work of the corresponding A class. This division makes it comparatively easy to assign a pupil transferred from another school to the proper grade with little or no loss of time, or grade, to the pupil so transferred.

The pupil attending four 12-week terms in any calendar year gains one-third of a grade's work over pupils under the regular plan. This means a gain of two full grades in six years, enabling the pupil to complete the eight grades' work in six years, instead of eight years according to the regular plan. Thus a pupil entering the first grade September 1, 1912, under the regular plan and making regular progress will be able to enter the high school September 1, 1920; whereas a pupil entering the first grade at the same time and progressing regularly through the grade of the all-year plan will be ready to enter the high school September 1, 1918; that is, two years earlier.

It is essential, in order that the regular plan and the all-year plan may be carried on side by side and without friction, that the dates for the beginning and ending of vacations should be, as nearly as practicable, the same. This is easily effected because of the fact that the eight added weeks of the year are all in July and August when the regular pupils are having their vacation. Instead of the usual 10 week's vacation in the summer, the all-year pupils get but two weeks. At all other times of the year pupils under both plans have vacations of the same length and at the same time.

Enrollment in the all-year school at Newark, N. J.

Attendance.	Grammar.	Primary.	Kinder-garten.	Total.
Total enrollment.....	764	1,605	390	2,849
Average enrollment.....	703	1,541	370	2,614
Average attendance.....	668	1,424	302	2,397
Per cent promoted.....	95.7	88.0	90.2

Only one case of illness was attributed to the work of the school.

The above figures do not include the number enrolled in the six-week vacation school. In these schools, 14,371 pupils were enrolled in 1912, making a total of 17,220.

Statistics from other cities, such as Cleveland, Ohio, and St. Louis, Mo., would be equally interesting. It is evident that the trend is toward more serious work in the summer vacation school; not that there will be fewer schools of the playground type, but more of the academic type.

XI. THE PHYSICAL WELFARE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

The year 1911-12 was marked by no especially new developments in connection with the health of school children, but several items of progress which are of comparatively recent origin have held the interest of school men and a wholesome growth in the right direction has ensued. Some of these items are medical inspection, open-air schools, school lunches, sex instruction, and quiet zones around schoolhouses.

MEDICAL INSPECTION.

In 1911 the Russell Sage Foundation in its "What American cities are doing for the health of school children," reported that of 1,038 cities reporting, 443 had medical inspection, and that this was an increase of 420 over the number providing such precaution against disease in 1902. Data for 1912 comparable with the statistics of the Russell Sage Foundation for the previous year are lacking, but numerous reports showing the beginning of medical inspection in cities came to the bureau of education during the year, and there is every reason to believe that the rate of growth shown by the figures for 1902 and 1911 was at least not diminished. In all probability medical inspection of school children will be found in every American city within a very few years.

OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS.

The first open-air school in the United States was established in Sea Breeze Hospital, Coney Island, N. Y., in 1904. Four years later the principle of open-air instruction was applied to public school children in Providence, R. I. Children who had been excluded from the public schools on account of pulmonary tuberculosis were put into an open-air class. The results of the experiment at Providence were so successful that other cities soon established similar schools, until now there are more than 200 such schools in the United States. The real growth has been within the past two years. According to

the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis—

there were in January, 1910, only 13 open-air schools in the United States and in 1911 there were only 29. Massachusetts now leads the States with 86 fresh-air schools and classes for tuberculous and anemic school children, Boston alone having over 80 fresh-air schools. New York comes next with 29, and Ohio third with 21. Open-air schools have now been established in nearly 50 cities, in 19 different States. Based on figures of population and mortality furnished by the United States Census Bureau, it is estimated that not less than 100,000 children now in school in the United States will die of tuberculosis before they are 18 years of age, or that about 7,000 of these children die annually from this one disease. Estimating that on an average each child has had six years of schooling, the aggregate loss to this country in wasted education each year amounts to well over \$1,000,000. This loss and much of the incident suffering could be materially decreased if open-air schools or classes for these children and those who are sickly and anemic were provided.

The association estimates that there should be one such school for every 25,000 population, especially in cities.

The open-air school has demonstrated its ability to take anemic and tuberculous children and convert them into strong, vigorous, apparently healthy children. It has also been demonstrated that strong, healthy children may be made stronger and healthier by the open-air school.

There is no record of any city that has abandoned the work, but, on the other hand, cities that established open-air schools several years ago are increasing the number as rapidly as possible. Among these are Boston, Providence, Chicago, New York, and Pittsburgh. The school committee of Boston has passed a resolution providing that each new schoolhouse built in that city must have at least one open-air classroom. A number of classrooms in New York City have been remodeled, so that they may be used for open-air classes.

The following quotation from the 1912 report of Oakland, Cal., discloses results practically similar to those of other open-air schools:

We are just closing the second year of the "open-air school." At the opening two years ago, it was filled by picking from the main school such children as were for some cause poorly nourished and generally below par. They were such as would naturally lose in weight and vitality in the ordinary classroom. Every scholar in the main school, as well as the open-air room, was carefully weighed and recorded at the beginning of the year, and again at the Christmas vacation. The result was markedly in favor of the open-air room. Not one lost weight there, while several did on the inside. The average gain in the open-air room was 3.7 pounds, on the inside 2.36 pounds. The mental gain was equally good. All were promoted and several made more than one grade. Everyone visiting the room noted the bright, wide-awake condition of the pupils. They were as lively at 3 p. m. as at 10 a. m. Since the first term the personnel has been changed frequently. As they get strong, they are replaced by weaker ones; so that it has been impossible to make accurate comparison. The gain in all has been steady and no catarrhal troubles have been experienced. The gain in weight and mental standing, the freedom from colds and infectious disease, the bright and cheerful faces, all call loudly for open-air schools.

The movement to establish open-air schools has not been confined entirely to larger cities. Hazleton, Pa., a city of 25,000 population, is maintaining a successful fresh-air school. The superintendent of Hazleton reports:

Two years ago the school board established a fresh-air school for the benefit of anemics and children threatened with or suffering from tuberculosis. The antituberculosis committee of the United Charities provided Eskimo suits, and hot porridge, cocoa, or some similar food for the lunch hour. They also provided cots with blankets. The board provided a teacher and assistant, a janitor and three rooms—one for a schoolroom, one for a lunchroom, and one for a sleeping apartment. The board also provided for the transportation of children who live at too great a distance from the school or who were too frail to walk, even though the distance was not so great.

The school opened with 21 pupils, who were admitted upon the recommendation of a board of physicians. Since that time, the school has numbered as high as 42. Its present number is 23. Of those who have attended, about 80 children returned to their regular schoolrooms, because of improved condition of health. Two or three have been sent to institutions for the care of consumptives. None, so far as I know, has died. The improvement in the health of the children has been remarkable. The schoolroom and the restroom have the windows thrown open all the time. The windows of the lunchroom are closed during the lunch hour.

The cost to the school district has been about \$4 per month per pupil. The State dispensary furnishes milk delivered to the building for the children whose parents are too poor to provide it. All children buy a lunch, and those who can do so have milkmen deliver their milk at the school building.

The program consists of regular school work, beginning at 9 a. m.; hot milk at the middle of the forenoon, lunch at noon, with hot porridge, cocoa, or some other nourishing food, furnished by the antituberculosis committee; an hour and a half sleep upon the cots; and two hours of school instruction.

A result fully as desirable as the improvement of the children of the fresh-air school is that of the effect that the instruction of the fresh-air school has had upon all of the city schools, namely, a far greater interest in the matter of fresh air and lower temperature in the ordinary schoolrooms. Teachers and pupils seek to keep the air of the room purer and the temperature lower.

Grand Rapids, Mich., has an open-air school for sickly children who are entirely free from tuberculosis. A certificate of a physician to this effect must be furnished. These children are fed three times a day: At 9 o'clock in the morning, at 12 o'clock, and at 3.30. The menus are made and the food prepared by the teacher of domestic science. The superintendent reports that these children have improved in health and strength and in ability to learn since they were placed in the open-air school.

A summary of the results attained by open-air schools is as follows:¹

The results are uniformly good. Few of the children fail to show a gain in weight, color, appetite, attendance, deportment, and scholarship. Of reports received for over 875 children in these schools, only 70 showed a loss in weight.

¹ U. S. Public Health Service: Public Health Bulletin, 1912, No. 58.

Most of the 70 showing loss in weight were the open advanced cases who were admitted too late to expect success.

In about 90 per cent of the children the rate of gain was greater than for the normal child, so that at the end of the year children who were on admission 10 to 15 per cent below the normal weight, in proportion to height, showed not only the normal gain in proportion to increase in height, but gained so that they were only 6 to 9 per cent below the normal.

Where control tests were made, the open-air children showed a greater gain than the normal children in the rooms of the public schools.

During vacations some loss was almost invariably shown, but where records were carefully kept they never showed a loss of all the gain. Tables of weekly weights show slight losses at the beginning of the summer before the vacation. This same loss is shown in the controls of healthy children of the public schools.

Marked improvement was shown in the color of nearly all the children where records were kept of hemoglobin tests. In a large percentage of cases it reached normal, whereas that of the healthy children used as controls on the test showed a decline through the spring months, falling below normal.

The attendance is greatly improved. During the coldest days in St. Louis, when the thermometer was below zero, 22 of the 25 children were present. The percentage of absentees is much less than in the public schools.

The progress in their grades is remarkable, even though they work little more than half the time. As compared with the children of the public school, they not only keep up in the grades, but many (nearly 50 per cent) go ahead. The St. Louis open-air class completed in 8 months' time the usual amount of work done in the public schools and 20 per cent more. In other words, they did in 8 months the work that the normal child in the indoor public school would do in 9½ months. One class in New York City, which was 19 per cent below grade on admission in October, was only 9 per cent below the following June, making the normal progress plus 10 per cent more than the child of the public schools. They never seem to flag and are as ready to do arithmetic in the afternoon as in the morning and are as fresh and alert when dismissed as on arrival.

In considering these results, it is impossible with the present data to say to which of the features these results are due.

The constant factors present in all the schools are fresh air, proper clothing, and proper diet. The other features—rest, recreation, and bathing—are not common to all. The good results are obtained with the first, but results are somewhat better when the latter are added as part of the routine. Another feature which should not be lost sight of in considering the results in scholarship is the teacher. Usually an exceptional teacher is selected, and she has more time with 25 children to make the teaching more individual. The results are so satisfactory in every case that the open-air school can no longer be classed as an experiment, but may now be relied upon as one of the most practical remedies for the mentally and physically subnormal child, and certainly one of the cheapest.

SCHOOL LUNCHES.

The school luncheon, though of comparatively recent origin in the American city, has gained vogue rapidly in recent years. The early hour at which some children get their morning meals, the scarcity of breakfast in the case of some, the unwholesomeness of confections and other edibles sold to them by venders, and the late hour at

which many must get their noon meals at home, all argue forcefully for the school lunch and under proper supervision by school authorities.

As outlining the development and present status of the luncheon propaganda in this country the following is quoted from Mrs. Louise Stevens Bryant, of the psychological clinic, University of Pennsylvania:¹

As in the case of many other educational adjuncts, the United States has been slow in following the lead of the European countries in adopting school feeding. Long after it had passed the experimental stage in Europe it was still regarded as a startling innovation here. Purely charitable work was undertaken as early as 1855, when the Children's Aid Society in New York City began to furnish free lunches for the children of the industrial schools. Almost from the beginning of his superintendency of the New York schools Dr. William H. Maxwell has urged the installation of lunches in the elementary schools, where all who wish may buy at cost a warm, nourishing noon meal. Since 1908 lunches in the elementary schools have been conducted by the co-operative efforts of the educational authorities and a committee of social workers, physicians, and teachers. The Starr Center Association started penny lunches in two Philadelphia schools over 15 years ago; a work that with the cooperation of other societies has continued and grown until at present there are more than 10 schools with some form of school lunch. After two years of agitation and investigation, the board of education in Chicago in the fall of 1910 appropriated \$1,200 for the experiment of installing lunch rooms in six city schools. It is too early to speak of results. Recent reports show that the meals are a success so far as they may be measured by the attendance and the children's interest. In 27 other cities in 14 different States women's clubs, teachers, and school physicians have organized to introduce lunches in the elementary schools, and in at least 20 other places the matter is under consideration. Though there have been no legislative enactments providing for school lunches in American cities, at least one important step in this direction has been taken in Massachusetts. This takes the shape of a bill favorably reported by the committee on education of the lower house in the session of 1912 and provides that school boards shall be empowered to expend school funds for the support of lunches in elementary school systems.

SEX INSTRUCTION.

It is now generally admitted that there has been a certain timorousness or false modesty connected with the impartation of knowledge of the biological facts of the human organism and especially of sex relations, and some efforts have been made to meet the need for proper instruction. But there is yet no agreement of opinion as to either how this information shall be given to the child or who shall be the instructor. The most favored method of instruction would seem to be by comparative biology, but this has its limitations and lurking dangers. Some favor straight "frank talks" to boys and girls when the proper age is reached, preferably in groups and

¹ Bryant, Louise Stevens, "School Feeding," Philadelphia, 1913, pp. 18-20.

necessarily with the sexes separated. The use of textbooks on the subject is generally disapproved, but perfect frankness is proclaimed as preferable to clouded mystery. All would be careful, of course, as to the time of beginning the subject.

The consensus of opinion is that the instructor in this regard should be the parent, but as a matter of fact parents do not now give such instruction as it should be given, and, moreover, most of them are probably incapable of giving it properly. The position of the clergyman has a point of vantage and no doubt his approach to the subject would possess the necessary sympathetic and moral elements, but he can not reach all children, and the multiplicity of denominations in America would militate against effective concerted effort. Looking to the field of medicine we find a promising agency, and very likely the physician will play a prominent part in sex instruction when a definite program is finally evolved, but his method will probably be too pathological and will be wanting in sympathy and moral direction. The teacher is the next possible instructor, but the cry is that she is already "overburdened," and all agree that she would have to be "very wise" in her approach to this delicate subject. Moreover, as the vast majority of teachers are women and many elementary schools have women principals, the question arises as to who would teach the boys.

Despite the difficulties which have been indicated, sex instruction has found its way into the public schools of some cities, but no claim is made that it has passed beyond the experimental stage. When found, it is usually given quietly by some sympathetic teacher or through formal lectures. Detroit, Mich.; Elmira, N. Y.; Washington, D. C., and some other cities have begun with the lecture method. Former Supt. Don C. Bliss, of Elmira, N. Y., writes thus of the lectures given under his supervision:¹

A plan carried out in Elmira this year has so far proved fairly successful. A personal note was sent through the mail to the parents of every seventh and eighth grade child explaining the need for instruction of this kind and asking them to meet at the school on a certain date to discuss ways and means of giving the children of the two grades indicated instruction in sex hygiene. At the same time they were told that no children would be admitted to the class unless permission was first given by the parents. At the meeting about half of the invited parents were present. Two physicians, one a woman, the other a man, presented the question frankly from a medical standpoint. This was followed by a general discussion. Everyone present agreed that it was absolutely essential that sex instruction should be given the children, and nearly everyone felt that it could best be given in the schools by regular physicians. Accordingly, arrangements were made for a woman physician to give a series of plain talks to the girls, and for a man to give a similar series to the boys. The lectures given by both were frank. An attempt was made to give accurate information along all lines where inaccurate knowledge would probably be acquired from other

¹ Jour. of Educ., 75: 316, Mar. 21, 1912.

sources. Thus far no injurious effects have been noticed. The lecturers say that the mental attitude of the children was all that could be asked. Parents were not allowed to be present, but those parents who have talked with the children since the lectures feel that much good was accomplished. We are now waiting to see what the after effects will be. If we have satisfied the natural curiosity of the children and prevented them from seeking information from undesirable sources; if we have made them recognize that in their attitude toward the facts of life is one of the fundamental principles underlying the Nation's highest moral and spiritual growth; if they have been inspired to keep mind and body clean, then we shall be encouraged to continue the experiment. Should the reverse prove true, the solution of this vital question must be sought along other lines.

The primary object of sex instruction is not to gratify the curiosity of the child or to overcome self-consciousness, though these objects may well be kept in mind, but it is rather to inculcate correct ideas of sex morality and to promote eugenics. It is probable that in discussion of the subject too much emphasis has been placed on *sex* and that a better line of approach would be through the broader principles of biology and the qualities necessary for the improvement of the race. Some entirely new term analogous to "home economics" or "nature study" would seem to be preferable to such terms as "sex instruction" and "sex hygiene." How to live in one's relations with the opposite sex and how properly to perform one's function in securing the highest development of the race are the lessons really needed, and if education can be made to improve present conditions at this point, its forces should be enlisted to serve the purpose. Certain it is that the present system, under which the average child gets its first lesson in sex relations from the lips of some companion more precocious in the knowledge of evil, should be superseded by a more rational method. Regarding this subject Supt. William H. Maxwell, of New York City, says:¹

The suffering caused by the twin endemic diseases, gonorrhœa and syphilis, has given rise to an increasing demand that "sex hygiene" be taught in the schools, and in many parts of the United States it has been attempted in various forms, often with good and often with bad results. The most favorable results have been obtained in schools where sex hygiene has been differentiated into its several discrete aspects and adapted to pupils of different ages accordingly. These are:

(1) The Facts of Reproduction: These have been successfully taught in correlation with nature study in the elementary schools, high schools, and colleges, though the application to human affairs is seldom made by the pupil or teacher.

(2) Hygiene of Sexual Organs: The simple facts of the care of the sex organs have been taught successfully in connection with personal hygiene.

(3) Sex Sanitation: The etiology and nature of sex diseases have been taught in connection with courses in hygiene and biology with varied success.

(4) Social Hygiene: The duty of the individual with reference to sex matters has been taught from the ethical standpoint, usually in connection with any

¹ Fourteenth Annual Report, 1911-12, p. 14.

or all of the above topics, and it has often met with failure. It is the general opinion of school men that this is a doubtful school duty.

The most successful instruction in this line has been in individual consultation by the school or college physician and in lectures to parents. The latter is the only form of procedure that I am prepared at this time to recommend.

"QUIET ZONES" AROUND SCHOOLS.

Several years ago, through the efforts of the Society for the Suppression of Unnecessary Noise, the board of aldermen of New York City established quiet districts in the vicinity of hospitals, and in more recent years the same society has brought to the attention of educational and health authorities throughout the country the need of similar "zones" for schoolhouses. Ready response and indorsement of the proposal were received from 25 State boards and from the educational heads of 70 cities within a few weeks.

There can be no question that in large cities, where street traffic is heavy and often congested, and where neighboring enterprises such as blacksmith shops and garages abound, the teacher in the classroom is at a disadvantage in the competition with outside sounds. The necessity of having to raise the voice is not only trying to the teacher, but nerve-racking to the pupil. Furthermore, it is often necessary to keep windows closed in order to shut out the din from children's play, the shouts of hucksters and drivers, and the rumble of drays and street cars. Thus the ventilation of schoolrooms is frequently diminished and the suppression of unnecessary noises around the building becomes a question of health. Add to this the general impairment of the school's efficiency because of the numerous noises around the building and the necessity for quiet zones becomes apparent. In this connection Supt. Martin G. Brumbaugh, of Philadelphia, said in his annual report for 1911:¹

In the first place, it is almost impossible to ventilate these schoolrooms properly, for the reason that the moment the window is raised the disturbance from these external noises is intensified manyfold. In the second place, these noises constitute a continual menace to the proper conditions for instruction in the school and produce a state of nervous tension, both in the teacher and in the pupil, which is directly opposed to proper conditions of instruction. Many of our teachers suffer, by reason of their sensitive nervous organization, from these disturbing noises. Many of the pupils also suffer acutely; and the teachers and pupils alike are obliged to speak in a voice that is high and harsh and altogether undesirable. Moreover, it not infrequently happens that venders of merchandise of one sort or another cry their wares under the very windows of the school, where, of course, they have no prospect whatever of effecting a sale. Their effort is futile to them, but exceedingly disturbing to the school; and also, in some cases, factories, foundries, and other mercantile establishments where heavy materials are handled, are located so near to the school that they produce a constant disturbance and interruption of proper class conditions. For these

¹ Ninety-third An. Rep. of Bd. of Educ., Dec. 31, 1911, p. 60.

reasons I would urge upon the board and, through the board, upon city councils, the importance of taking proper steps by law to establish about the public schools of this city zones of silence.

XII. MISCELLANEOUS ACTIVITIES.

SCHOOL SOCIAL CENTERS.

Since the social and recreation centers in Rochester, N. Y., first attracted wide attention in 1907, the tendency toward the "wider use of the school plant" has continued with unabated vigor. In all parts of the country are now to be found cities in which schoolhouses are used for purposes other than the instruction of children during school hours. Branch libraries, literary societies, social and civic clubs, organizations for the study of music and art, concerts and dramatics, gymnasiums, and recreation rooms, and at some places even political meetings are to be seen within the walls of the schoolhouse. All this exemplifies the tendency to make education more of a social force.

The Bureau of Education has collected no statistics showing to what extent school buildings in cities are used for social and recreation purposes, but fortunately such information is at hand in a monograph by Clarence Arthur Perry, of the Russell Sage Foundation.¹ In 1912 Mr. Perry sent to 774 superintendents of city schools an inquiry regarding the extended use of their buildings and received 337 replies. He summarizes as follows the information obtained:

MAIN FACTS.

Forty-four cities reported centers at which there were *paid* workers. (Two years ago we could find only 15 cities in this class.)

In 19 of these at least some of the workers are paid by the board of education.

Fifty-seven other cities reported schoolhouses which were locally known as social or recreation centers, though they were conducted entirely by volunteer workers.

In 84 of the 101 cities reporting centers the heat and light are furnished by the school board.

In 72 the heat, light, and janitor service are provided by the board.

In 15 the board bears the total expense.

Total amount of money reported as expended, both by school boards and voluntary agencies in the maintenance of school centers, \$139,535.73.

Total number of schools used as centers in the 101 cities, 338.

Number of cities reporting branch libraries in public schools, 100.

SCHOOL GARDENS.

School gardening has become an integral part of some school systems. Not many school officials, however, have been willing to provide instruction in garden work, most of the training having been left to principals and teachers who volunteer their services.

¹ "A Survey of School Social Centers," Russell Sage Foundation, Bulletin No. R123.

It is claimed by some that if all the unused land now within the limits of the average city were put under intensive cultivation enough vegetables could be produced to support the city during the summer months. However this may be, it is believed that city children should be given an opportunity to get their hands and feet on and in cultivated soil. The chief reasons given for school gardening are:¹

Boys are made better boys; girls become more womanly and carry away a world of such experience for use in a future household; children become positively stronger and healthier; their idle time is profitably occupied; they become interested; they learn much of the greatest of all industries—agriculture; they grow to love the beautiful; they learn to do things with their hands; the dignity of labor is inculcated; they acquire tastes opposed to congested living; they become more sensitive to one another's rights.

So important is the work considered that supervisors are employed in some cities. In Memphis, Tenn., a supervisor of gardening is giving all his time to the subject, which has been made a part of the school course. Boys of grades 5 to 8, inclusive, are under the supervisor from 9 to 10.30 a. m., from 10.30 to 12, or from 1 to 3 p. m., once a week. A part of the garden work of the children is to keep records of the expenses incurred and the amount of vegetables produced from the garden. It is planned by the Memphis school board to procure the use of a school farm of 20 or more acres near a car line where the larger boys who are not otherwise employed during the summer months may, under intelligent supervision, make truck gardening profitable and educative. According to the report of Supt. L. E. Wolfe the results as shown in Memphis are: (1) Children have been interested in plant life; (2) waste places have been made useful and beautiful; (3) children have been provided with some spending money without working in a factory; (4) fresh vegetables have been furnished for the home; (5) homes have been made more beautiful and attractive.

In Los Angeles, Cal., over 60 school gardens are in operation. The largest is at Gardena Agricultural High School, where there are nearly 10 acres under cultivation in grains, vegetables, flowers, and fruits. These gardens range in size from a small bed or two to lots 40 or 50 by 200 feet. The latter have usually been loaned by citizens who are glad to have the children clear them and improve them with sightly flower and vegetable plots. There is a supervisor of gardening, with five assistants.

Cleveland, Ohio,² is a notable example of what school gardening can accomplish. Garden work in Cleveland was at first conducted jointly by the home gardening association and the board of education. In

¹ 1912 Report of School Garden Association.

² Bulletin 252, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

1905 the board assumed control of the work. In the same year a department of school gardens was created, with a curator at its head, the first position of its kind in the country.

At present the children's part in the school garden is voluntary and not a part of the regular curriculum, though it permeates the entire educational system. The garden labels, markers, and stakes are made in the manual training schools; the domestic science classes cook or can the vegetables they have raised; flowers and vegetables are used for drawing and painting; cotton, hemp, flax, and broom corn are raised to illustrate geography lessons; and nature study and language lessons have been vitalized by the garden.

The activities of the school garden work of the Cleveland public schools as now organized include the following features: Gardens for the children in the graded schools, for defective children, backward children, and delinquents; a botanic garden, an economic and kitchen garden, a nursery of trees and shrubs, propagating centers, the improvement of school grounds, and illustrated lectures. Sixty illustrated lectures were given in the schools last winter to illustrate the principles of soil propagation, cultivation, seed planting, crop rotation, and harmonious color schemes in gardens.

Minneapolis¹ had, in 1911-12, 10 school gardens, covering 12 acres of land; 4 of them on school property, 3 in parks, and the remainder on private land. The gardens were under the direction of the department of hygiene and physical training. The board of education paid one-half of the chief supervisor's salary and one-fourth of the four assistants' salaries. The children worked three hours a week during school time. This was divided into two periods and the work was voluntary.

In Philadelphia there are nine garden centers where the theory and practice of gardening were taught during 1912. There were 877 plots under cultivation. The spirit of gardening has been caught by the children and their parents, with the result that more than 8,000 home gardens were planted under the supervision of the teachers.

In Buffalo, N. Y., three phases of school gardening have been in operation for a long time—gardening done by teachers of certain schools on the school lot; winter gardening in the schools and in the homes of pupils; and school gardening conducted by outsiders.

SCHOOL SAVINGS BANKS.

The first savings bank inaugurated in a public school of the United States was started in 1885 by Mr. John H. Thiry, at School No. 4, in Long Island City, N. Y. The primary object of such banks is to inculcate habits of thrift, the saving of money by pupils being in itself incidental. After organizing the institution in Long Island City, Mr. Thiry, with true philanthropic spirit, devoted much of his time until his death in 1911 to promoting the establishment of similar banks throughout the country. Seeing the educational and economic

¹ Bulletin 252, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

advantages of the system, many educators and bankers took a lively interest in it and helped in its spread to other sections. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union and some other benevolent organizations have also exerted a wholesome influence in this direction.

Mr. Thiry bequeathed his books, papers, and other material regarding school savings banks to Mrs. Sara Louisa Oberholtzer, of Philadelphia, Pa., and since his death she has continued his work in furtherance of the propaganda. The following summary, made from a tabular report of Mrs. Oberholtzer, will show the extent of the school-savings movement on January 1, 1912. This summary, however, does not contain statistics from 13 cities and towns which, according to her report, have systems of school savings but give no figures. If Oklahoma and West Virginia, from which no statistics were available, be included, it will be seen that public schools in 25 States now have school savings banks.

Summary of statistics of school savings banks in cities and towns of the United States.

States.	Cities and towns reporting	Schoolhouses.	Rooms.	Pupils enrolled.	Depositors.	Total amount deposited.	Total amount withdrawn.	Balance due depositors.
California	4	144	1,649	66,572	9,558	\$78,331.71	\$818.19	\$77,513.52
Connecticut	13	31	159	7,081	3,957	27,866.51	3,817.14	24,049.37
Delaware	2	4	13	404	258	9,228.41	6,168.68	3,059.73
District of Columbia	1	1	1,018	403	4,617.15	2,730.54	1,886.61
Illinois	1	4	20	4,000	2,700	6,438.72	400.00	6,038.72
Indiana	1	15	161	6,000	1,847	15,003.33	13,564.30	1,439.03
Iowa	3	16	98	3,984	6,668	95,242.54	59,895.93	35,346.56
Kansas	3	6	27	906	268	407.19	88.20	313.99
Maine	1	6	31	1,290	369	1,682.34	19.59	1,662.75
Maryland	2	4	13	632	215	440.80	46.60	394.20
Massachusetts	15	197	636	31,539	17,324	128,572.88	93,686.87	34,886.01
Michigan	6	56	459	18,844	6,832	123,797.52	57,833.82	65,963.70
Minnesota	5	114	1,460	66,501	29,741	64,731.42	19,433.32	45,298.10
Missouri	1	62	700	38,000	10,000	194,984.52	157,129.32	37,855.20
Nebraska	1	1	6	347	120	1,156.00	327.00	829.00
New Hampshire	4	17	17	665	544	2,022.62	583.09	1,439.53
New Jersey	1	12	175	7,600	2,200	122,128.45	93,593.44	28,535.01
New York	11	42	551	32,202	10,359	478,289.89	420,253.42	58,036.47
Ohio	6	78	744	26,873	14,266	310,708.70	201,098.05	109,610.65
Pennsylvania	45	265	2,224	90,152	44,443	1,778,738.13	1,433,968.26	344,769.87
Rhode Island	1	9	51	2,171	786	3,867.95	1,028.86	2,839.09
Vermont	2	2	19	939	143	847.75	56.32	791.43
Washington	1	37	373	18,930	3,135	28,005.78	6,823.04	21,182.74
Wisconsin	1	10	114	4,094	1,273	4,939.09	239.00	4,700.09

PLAYGROUNDS.

As showing the recent progress and present status of the playground movement in this country, quotation may be made from the official organ of the Playground and Recreation Association of America.¹ The data given are for November 1, 1912. When it is remembered that in 1900 only five cities had public playgrounds with expert

¹ The Playground, 6:408, February, 1913.

supervision, the significance of these facts becomes more striking. The quotation follows:

Reports have been received from 285 cities maintaining regularly supervised playgrounds and recreation centers. These 285 cities during the year ending November 1, 1912, maintained 2,094 playgrounds and recreation centers, and employed 5,320 workers, of whom 2,195 were men and 3,075 women. In the cases of 50 workers the report failed to indicate whether the persons employed were men or women. Sixty-three cities employed 655 workers the year round. These figures indicate an increase over last year of about 22 per cent in the number of playground workers. In addition to the recreation workers, 1,353 caretakers were employed. A total expenditure of \$4,020,121.79 was reported. Of the 285 cities, 245 reported a total average daily attendance of 433,660 during July and August. Forty-five cities reported an average daily attendance of 33,639 during January and February.

In 33 cities, playgrounds and recreation centers were maintained by playground or recreation commissions, in 51 by playground associations, in 11 by playground associations in combination with other organizations, in 35 by school boards, in 33 by park boards, in 9 by park and school boards in combination, in 5 by park commissions and playground commissions, in 11 by park boards in combination with other organizations. In 12 cases they were carried on by special departments of the city government, in 10 by individuals, in 19 by clubs, in 18 by playground committees, in 50 by other agencies or by several agencies combined.

In 99 cities the centers were supported by municipal funds, in 90 cities by private funds, in 94 cities by both municipal and private funds. In 2 cities the sources of support were not given.

In 71 cities 299 centers were open throughout the year. One hundred and eighty cities reported that 1,142 centers were open only during July and August. In 88 cities 543 centers were open for periods ranging from 3 weeks to 10 months; of these, 143 centers were open for 3 months, 33 for 4 months, 59 for 5 months, 37 for 6 months, 154 for 7 months, 19 for 8 months, 38 for 9 months, 29 for 10 months. Thirty-one were open for periods of less than 3 months. In 153 cities centers were open on holidays and in 71 on Sundays.

The returns for this year show 129 cities having playground associations, 47 having playground or recreation commissions, and 7 having both.

One hundred and three cities reported 442 centers open evenings. The total average daily attendance for the 66 cities which made a report on attendance was 47,204.

It was reported that 47 out of the 285 cities maintained training classes for playground workers. This number includes the cities holding weekly conferences for their workers during the playground season. Four cities reported that training classes are in process of organization. In 19 of the 47 cities the returns show 1,180 student workers.

Seventy-one cities stated that their schoolhouses were used as recreation centers. Sixty-six of these cities reported 276 such centers, 10 of which were spoken of as civic centers. Three reported that their centers were used for lectures and evening schools and class work only. In addition to these, 43 cities, which do not appear in the table, reported that their schoolhouses were used as recreation centers. Forty cities reported 81 such centers.

In 10 cities streets were set aside for play; 61 cities reported that coasting in the streets was permitted.

In 172 cities organized efforts to promote public athletics were made through the public-school athletic leagues, Young Men's Christian Associations, inter-school meets, and other school athletics. One hundred and four cities reported public-school athletic leagues.

The number of cities reporting special recreation center activities are as follows: Boy Scouts, 56; Camp Fire Girls, 21; debating, 15; dramatics, 37; evening entertainments, 53; folk dancing, 132; gardening, 67; industrial work, 112; instrumental music, 38; lectures, 36; libraries, 56; moving pictures, 35; pageants, 44; self-government, 52; singing, 84; social dancing, 42; story telling, 143; summer camps, 27; swimming, 83; tramping, 74; wading, 75.

In 85 cities 385 centers had separate spaces for boys and girls.

In 41 cities land has been donated for playground purposes. The combined value of this property in 14 of these cities was estimated at \$457,450.

In 19 cities bond issues for recreation purposes were authorized during the year to the amount of \$2,524,775. In addition to these, 6 cities, which do not appear in the table because their centers were not regularly supervised, report bond issues amounting to \$1,260,629.

Forty-three cities stated that supervised playgrounds were opened for the first time during the year ending November 1, 1912.

Forty-nine cities reported centers carried on under no supervision other than caretakers. Nine reported centers under volunteer supervision. In these centers and in the school grounds—many of which were reported under the supervision of regular school-teachers during the day—many special playground activities were carried on. Forty-two reported Boy Scout activities; 62, efforts to promote organized activities; and 31, public-school athletic leagues.

CHAPTER V. RURAL EDUCATION.

By A. C. MONAHAN,

Specialist in Rural Education, Bureau of Education.

CONTENTS.

1. The interest in rural school affairs bearing results.—The movement of the population from one State to another and from the country to the city; the urban and the rural school situation briefly compared.
 2. A division of rural education in the Federal bureau.
 3. The committee on rural schools of the National Education Association.—Subjects chosen for consideration by the committee.
 4. State rural school commissions.—Iowa, North Dakota, and Wisconsin; recommendations of the various commissions.
 5. State supervisors and inspectors of rural schools.
 6. County rural-school supervisors.
 7. County rural-school industrial supervisors.
 8. State organizers of school improvement associations.
 9. Boys' and girls' agricultural clubs.—Brief history of the agricultural-club movement, boys' corn clubs in cotton States, objects of clubs, rules governing contests, some results, girls' tomato and canning clubs, clubs in the Northern and Western States.
 10. School credit for home industrial work.—The home-project plan, the Oregon plan, the Missouri plan.
 11. Important recent legislation affecting rural education.—In Kentucky, South Carolina, and other States.
 12. Recent publications on rural education.
 13. Progress in several States as reported by the special collaborators of the bureau.
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THE INTEREST IN RURAL SCHOOL AFFAIRS BEARING RESULTS.

The increased interest in rural school affairs evident during the past few years is now bearing results in activity for the improvement of rural educational conditions. Still greater activity may be expected in the next few years, and much will undoubtedly be done to make the opportunities for education in rural districts more nearly equal to those in urban communities. The movement for improved rural schools has come from an increased and more definite knowledge of the actual rural-school situation. Comprehensive studies have been made in several States and information regarding the results of the studies has been distributed widely. These have been made by special commissions or by special officers of State departments of education appointed to devote their en-

tire time to rural schools. As a result the rural schools have been thoroughly examined, and more accurate knowledge of them and their efficiency exists than ever before.

It is not yet generally appreciated that the status of rural education is a matter of concern to all people, regardless of whether they are urban or rural. If people remained in the community or county or State in which they were educated, the problem would be local. The fact is that they do not remain there; probably at no time in the history of the country has there been a greater movement than during the past 10 years from one community to another, from the country to the city, and from State to State. It is not possible to calculate the exact extent of the movement from one community to another within the States. The movement from State to State, however, may be closely estimated from figures published by the United States Bureau of the Census, which show that in 1910 only 66.5 per cent of the total population were then living in the State in which they were born; 18.8 per cent were born in other States, and 14.7 per cent in foreign countries. As would be expected, the number living in the State of birth was lower in the Western Division than in other parts of the country; but if the 11 States in the Rocky Mountains and on the Pacific coast be omitted, the number for the remaining 37 States living in the State of birth is but 69 per cent of the total population.

A rough estimate of the movement from the country to the city may be made from the census figures for 1910 by comparing the urban and rural increase. The rate of urban increase for the entire country in the 10 years ended in 1910 was more than three times the rate of rural increase, the figures being 34.8 per cent and 11.3 per cent, respectively. The urban increase exceeded the rural increase by 6,049,785. Part of this urban excess was undoubtedly due to immigration from foreign countries, but the total number of foreign-born persons in the entire United States in 1910 was greater than the number in 1900 by only 3,174,610, and according to the census report but 77.6 per cent of the arrivals since January 1, 1901, were residing in 1910 in urban communities.¹ No part of the greater urban rate of increase can be accounted for by the natural increase; the number of

¹ It would seem to be a very easy matter to continue the calculation, based on the figures presented, thus: Increase in number of immigrants living in cities, 2,463,057; in the country, 811,553; difference, 1,651,504. Excess of total urban increase over rural increase, 6,049,785, of which 1,651,504 may be ascribed to immigration; therefore 4,398,281 persons must have moved from the country to the city.

Little reflection is required to show that such a conclusion would be fallacious. Much of the urban increase comes from the extension of the corporate lines of cities. Still more of it comes from the transfer of places from the rural to the urban classification, because a slight increase in population has carried them above an arbitrary statistical line. No "movement" of population is implied in the first factor and not much in the second.

The author writes advisedly of "a rough estimate." It is evident that he does not intend the figures to be used for a precise calculation in this connection.—EDITOR.

rural children is greater than the number of urban children, both in actual number and in proportion to the total population. The average rural family, according to the census report for 1910, contained 4.6 persons; the average urban family 4.5 persons. The larger part of the urban increase has come, therefore, from the migration from the country to the city. The city is therefore vitally concerned in the amount and quality of the education given to children in the rural sections from which it draws its population, and should assist through a State educational fund in the support of good rural schools where the cost of maintaining such schools proves too heavy a burden for the local communities. Every State is concerned not only with what every community within itself is doing to educate its people, but also with what every other State is doing. Education is no longer a matter of local concern only; it is a matter of State and of National concern.

The urban school situation in the United States is fairly satisfactory. The city school systems are well organized, the schools are on the whole well managed, adequately supervised, taught by persons with good general education and with professional training, and are housed in buildings which are moderately suitable, sanitary, and well equipped with facilities for teaching. All these essentials are lacking in the rural schools, except in a few States and in a comparatively few counties in others. It may be said that in probably two-thirds of the States the rural schools are unintelligently and uneconomically managed, are not supervised in any effective or efficient way, are taught by untrained teachers, and are housed in buildings which are largely unsuitable and are often insanitary. Of course, it goes without saying that there are exceptions to the above statements; nevertheless they are generally true. A recent study has been made by the Bureau of Education of the rural school situation. A preliminary report has been published in a bulletin entitled "The Status of Rural Education." It is not necessary, therefore, to repeat here what is presented in the bulletin, except perhaps a few figures which will indicate some of the features of the rural school problem. The total population and illiteracy figures are from the Census Report for 1910. The other figures were compiled in the Bureau of Education. It is worthy of note that while 53.7 per cent of the total population is classed as rural 58.5 per cent of the children of school age (6 to 20, inclusive) are rural. This means that the 53.7 per cent of the total population who are living in rural territory have 58.5 per cent of the children to educate, while the 46.3 per cent classed as urban have only 41.3 per cent of the children to educate. It is noteworthy also that the rural illiteracy 10 years of age and over is twice the urban illiteracy, and this in spite of the great numbers of illiterate foreign-born persons included in the urban population. This larger rate of

rural illiteracy is due largely to the lack of adequate and efficient rural schools. The real test of the service of a school is the amount of illiteracy it leaves about it. The definition of urban and rural in the bulletin mentioned above and in the table following is that of the Bureau of the Census. An incorporated city, town, or village of 2,500 population or over is classed as urban; all places of less than 2,500, rural. For New England the township with 2,500 persons or over is considered as urban, townships with less than that number as rural.

Urban and rural school population and school attendance.

	Total population.	Illiterate (10 years of age and over).	School population.	School enrollment.	Average daily attendance.	Aggregate attendance.	Days in annual session.	Aggregate amount paid teachers.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.		Per cent.
Urban.....	46.3	5.1	41.5	37.7	41.5	48.7	184.3	54.5
Rural.....	53.7	10.1	58.5	62.3	58.5	51.3	137.7	45.2

The following pages are devoted largely to an account of recent progress in rural education. They include also a brief statement of the recent legislation intended primarily to affect rural schools. A report is also included of some of the most important agencies now actively engaged in the work of the improvement of rural schools, together with an account of their principal activities. They mention briefly books on rural education that have appeared during the past year, and some of the more important bulletins from the Federal Bureau of Education, from State education departments, and educational institutions.

DIVISION OF RURAL EDUCATION IN THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

In the United States Bureau of Education a division of rural education was created November 1, 1911. This was made possible by a provision included in the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill for the year ended June 30, 1912, approved on March 4, 1911. This congressional act provided the sum of \$6,000 to be expended "for the investigation of rural education, industrial education, and school hygiene, including salaries."

During the one year of its existence the work of the division has been largely a study of the status of rural education in the United States, the results of which are included in Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1913, No. 8. This publication contains data relative to the rural population, illiteracy, school enrollment, attendance, and the one-teacher school; also a summary of the present status of the rural school teaching force, the supervision and the organizations for the management of school affairs. The information for the bulletin was

obtained from State reports, from the Bureau of the Census, and from personal visits to rural schools by representatives of the bureau. The division also collected the material, and with the assistance of President Robert H. Wright, of the East Carolina Teachers' Training School, Greenville, N. C., prepared and published Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1913, No. 2, Training Courses for Rural Teachers. It also assisted in preparing for publication several other bulletins mentioned under the section on recent publications on rural education included later in this chapter.

The division has affiliated with it about 50 special collaborators, each appointed at a nominal salary, to cooperate in keeping it in touch with the best things done in rural education. These collaborators are all persons whose work is directly connected with rural education in State departments of education, in State normal schools, or in other similar positions. Several of them are making special studies for the division on various phases of rural education, the results of which will probably be published by the bureau.¹

In the appropriation bill approved August 23, 1912, the amount allotted for "rural education, industrial education, and school hygiene" was increased from \$6,000 to \$15,000. As a result the

¹ The list of collaborators is as follows: Ernest Burnham, director rural school department, Western State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich. Miss Jessie Field, in charge of county department, Y. W. C. A., New York City. William H. Hand, State Inspector of high schools, Columbia, S. C. George M. Lynch, State Inspector of rural schools, Gainesville, Fla. W. H. Smith, State supervisor rural schools, Jackson, Miss. Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart, Rowan County superintendent, Morehead, Ky. Mrs. Charles P. Weaver, department of education, Frankfort, Ky. A. E. Wagner, township superintendent, Nesquehoning, Pa. Henry G. Williams, dean State Normal College, Athens, Ohio. Thomas J. Coates, supervisor rural schools, Richmond, Ky. J. L. Bond, State supervisor of rural schools, Little Rock, Ark. E. C. Branson, professor of rural economics and sociology, State Normal School, Athens, Ga. Miss Adelaide S. Baylor, State department of education, Indianapolis, Ind. B. M. Davis, professor of agricultural education, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. W. E. Larson, State Inspector of rural schools, Madison, Wis. Thomas S. Settle, State supervisor of rural schools, Richmond, Va. Jackson Davis, second supervisor of rural schools, Richmond, Va. L. J. Hanifan, State supervisor of rural schools, Charleston, W. Va. R. H. Powell, president State Normal College, Valdosta, Ga. N. R. Baker, State supervisor of rural schools, Montgomery, Ala. Cyrus J. Brown, State supervisor of rural schools, Baton Rouge, La. F. C. Button, State supervisor of rural schools, Frankfort, Ky. J. E. Warren, agent of the State board of education, Boston, Mass. Mrs. Margaret Craig Curran, deputy State superintendent, department of education, Olympia, Wash. W. B. Mooney, professor of rural education, State Teachers' College, Greeley, Colo. B. W. Torreyson, professor of secondary education, State department of education, Little Rock, Ark. McHenry Rhoads, professor of secondary education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky. N. W. Walker, professor of secondary education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C. J. C. Fant, professor of secondary education, University of Mississippi, University, Miss. John A. Thackston, State high school inspector, University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla. Leo M. Favrot, State second supervisor of rural schools, Little Rock, Ark. Charles G. Maphis, professor of secondary education, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va. F. B. Frazier, State supervisor of rural schools, Nashville, Tenn. L. L. Friend, State inspector of high schools, University of West Virginia, Morgantown, W. Va. Herbert E. Austin, East Carolina Teachers' Training School, Greenville, N. C. Miss Agnes Morris, State department of education, Baton Rouge, La. Mrs. Marie T. Harvey, principal model rural school, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo. William K. Tate, State supervisor of rural schools, Columbia, S. C.

division now includes J. D. Eggleston, formerly State superintendent of public instruction of Virginia, chief of field service, and three specialists in rural education, namely, H. W. Foght, formerly of the Kirksville (Mo.) State Normal School; J. C. Muerman, formerly division superintendent of schools for the Province of Cebu, Philippine Islands; and A. C. Monahan. Mr. Eggleston, with headquarters at Richmond, Va., is giving his attention particularly to rural schools of the Southern States; Mr. Foght, with headquarters at Kirksville, Mo., to the States of the Central West; Mr. Muerman, with headquarters at Salem, Oreg., to the Rocky Mountain and Pacific States; and Mr. Monahan to the Eastern States.

THE RURAL COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.

The National Council of Education at the annual meeting of the National Education Association, held at San Francisco in July, 1911, upon the motion of E. T. Fairchild, then State superintendent of public instruction of Kansas, voted that a committee of 11 be appointed "to investigate the present condition of rural schools and make recommendations for their improvement." The committee appointed was the following:

E. T. Fairchild, president of New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Durham, N. H., chairman.

L. H. Bailey, dean of the State College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N. Y.

Henry C. Morrison, State superintendent of public instruction, Concord, N. H.

A. C. Nelson, State superintendent of public instruction, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Edward C. Elliott, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

Miss Adelaide Steele Baylor, State Department of Education, Indianapolis, Ind.

T. H. Harris, State superintendent of public education, Baton Rouge, La.

John R. Kirk, president, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.

Edward Hyatt, State superintendent of public instruction, Sacramento, Cal.

Luther L. Wright, State superintendent of public instruction, Lansing, Mich.

James Y. Joyner, State superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, N. C.

Charles H. Keyes, president of Skidmore School of Arts, Saratoga Springs, N. Y., and president of the National Council of Education. (Added to the committee by vote of the council.)

An appropriation of \$1,000 for the expenses of the investigation was made by the board of directors of the National Education Association. The first meeting of the committee was held at Chicago, November 18 to 20, 1911. The United States Commissioner of Education and a representative of the division of rural education met with the committee.

A report on the organization of the committee and the character and scope of the work contemplated was made at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence at St. Louis, in February, 1912. The board of directors voted another \$1,000 for expenses. A pre-

liminary report was made at the Chicago meeting of the National Education Association in July, 1912, and the committee was continued another year.

SUBJECTS CHOSEN FOR CONSIDERATION BY THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION COMMITTEE ON RURAL SCHOOLS.

It is conceded that "the rural school is the one laggard in the educational procession." The conditions governing the country schools of to-day and the lack of adequate results are well known to the students of education. The indictment is in part as follows:

Of the 12,000,000 rural school children less than 25 per cent are completing the work of the grades. The teaching body is immature and lacks proper training. Terms are too short. School buildings are poor, insanitary, and ill equipped. The school enrollment is constantly decreasing. The supervision is wholly inadequate. High-school privileges are denied to the great majority of these boys and girls. The strong, virile rural school of a generation ago has gone, and in its place is a primary school weak in numbers and lacking in efficiency. The country boy and girl of this strenuous and complex twentieth century are not afforded equal educational opportunities with the city children.

With this knowledge, it seems unnecessary to enter upon an extensive investigation having as its aim the gathering of information relative to the present rural school situation. The committee on rural schools, therefore, will address itself to the problem of suggesting ways and means for the betterment of these schools and for awakening the public to a definite sense of the needs of the rural schools.

In pursuance of this policy the following were agreed upon as proper subjects for investigation and recommendation by the committee on rural schools—

ORGANIZATION.

1. *The unit of school organization.*—A consideration of the several units—district, township, and county—with a view to urging the general adoption of that one which affords the best results.

2. *Consolidation.*—A presentation of the advantages and of the imperative need of consolidation or centralization of schools from considerations of economy and efficiency.

3. *Classification.*—The adoption of a plan of systematic classification or standardization of rural schools with official recognition by the State of those schools which fulfill prescribed conditions, in the form of a moderate amount of State aid.

4. *Minimum term.*—The enactment in every State of a law fixing the minimum length of the school year, with provision for State aid to those districts which without such aid would not be able to maintain school for the prescribed period.

ADMINISTRATION.

5. *Funds—Their source and distribution.*—A study of means of increasing school revenues, and a rational basis for the distribution of State and county school funds.

6. *Compulsory attendance.*—A thorough study of the compulsory school laws of the several States, and a general investigation of means of increasing the attendance in rural schools.

7. *The school plant.*—Model school grounds and buildings and a standard equipment for rural schools.

8. *Libraries*.—Providing a minimum number of suitable general and reference books in the form of permanent or traveling libraries.

9. *Supervision*.—(a) Closer supervision. The development of a plan for closer and more effective supervision; e. g., the Oregon plan, which provides for every 50 schools a supervisor under the direction of the county superintendent.

(b) County superintendents. The system of county supervision, including the qualifications, manner of selection, duties, tenure of office, and compensation of county superintendent.

(c) State rural school supervisors. The need in each State of one or more rural-school supervisors or visitors, under the direction of the State department of education.

10. *Records and statistics*.—Systematic records that shall reveal real facts as to (a) rural school population; (b) enrollment; (c) average attendance; (d) length of term; (e) number of rural-school pupils completing the work of the grades; (f) comparative per capita cost of town and country system; (g) comparison per pupil of valuation of taxable property, town and country; (h) comparison of average mill levy in town and country; (i) comparison of value of school property, buildings, etc., per pupil, town and country; (j) comparison of enrollment per teacher, town and country; (k) comparison of average number of school days attended in town and in country.

INSTRUCTION.

11. *Uniform courses of study*.—A provision in the several States for the preparation and compulsory use of a course of study for rural schools and suggestions as to gradation and a minimum number of classes; and, in view of the general recognition of the need of a reorganization and redirection of the work of these schools, the feasibility of introducing additional vocational work, particularly in agriculture, and of providing at State or county expense special instructors therein.

12. *Textbooks*.—The adoption of textbooks that recognize more intimately country life and country environment.

13. (a) *Preliminary preparation of teachers*.—The enactment of laws providing for a more adequate preliminary training on the part of applicants for teachers' certificates.

(b) *Teacher training courses in high schools*.—A system of teacher training courses in high schools for the purpose of securing a better-trained class of teachers in the rural schools.

14. *Appointment and tenure of teachers*.—The appointment or nomination of teachers by an educational expert, as the county superintendent, with greater permanence of tenure.

SOCIAL ELEMENTS.

15. (a) *Cooperation*.—Cooperation of social forces—the home, church, grange, farmers' institutes, extension work of colleges, papers and magazines.

(b) *The school as a social center*.—The use of school buildings as centers for the various social activities of the community.

16. *The home and the school*.—A close inquiry based upon the theory that the progress, discipline, qualifications, and development of the youth depend more largely upon the right kind of parental influence than upon all others combined. This may well include the question, To what extent approximately does the influence of incompetent parental supervision affect the capabilities, adaptation, discipline, and efficiency of the average pupils in our public schools?

The State may provide for its boys and girls great opportunities, the acceptance of which the parent may easily prevent.

17. *Organized games and plays.*—The appropriateness of play as an educational agency and the utilization of the child's instinctive interests as a means of promoting his intellectual and moral growth.

RURAL SECONDARY EDUCATION.

18. (a) *Free tuition.*—The value of high-school training for country youth and the necessity and means of providing free high-school privileges for every eligible boy and girl.

(b) *Consolidated, township, and county high schools.*—The plan of instituting and maintaining consolidated, township, and county high schools, and the introduction of vocational training for preparation for country life and pursuits.

STATE RURAL SCHOOL COMMISSIONS.

During the past year three States, Iowa, North Dakota, and Wisconsin, have had special commissions studying the rural schools of their respective States with a view of making recommendations for their improvement.

IOWA.

In Iowa the commission is a subcommittee of a State commission known as the Better Iowa Schools Commission. This commission results from the action of the State teachers' association at the regular meeting in November, 1911. By unanimous vote the association set aside \$2,000 for the expenses of a commission to investigate public-school conditions in the State, and to report its findings with recommendations. In accordance with the provisions of the resolution the State superintendent of public instruction appointed a commission of 21 persons, which met in Des Moines in February, 1912. The committee was divided into nine subcommittees, each to investigate a different phase of the Iowa school problem. The various subjects were as follows: 1. School administration in Iowa—State, county, and local. 2. The rural schools. 3. The graded schools. 4. The high schools. 5. Industrial education. 6. State aid for public schools. 7. The school as a community center. 8. Committee on publicity. 9. The facilities for the training of teachers.

The recommendations of several of these committees pertain in part to rural education. Such parts will be presented here, although the report of the investigation itself will not be included.

The committee on school administration recommend among other things:

1. An increased salary for the superintendent of public instruction; that his term of office shall be four years; and that the method of nomination be non-partisan.

2. The appointment of a rural-school inspector in the State department of education.

3. That county superintendents be paid at least \$1,800 per year and be elected by a nonpartisan or appointive method for a term of four years.
4. A county board of education composed of men directly interested in schools.
5. That all school officers be required to attend an annual meeting or conference called by the county superintendent.
6. That the township be the unit of organization for the management of rural schools, with a township school board of five members.

The committee on rural schools report that they find—

the Iowa rural school shows unwarranted weakness. This is due to several causes rather than to any one. There is no definite purpose in the minds of patrons to improve the schools. They are meagerly equipped and in some instances very much neglected. There is a lack of definite standards of work on the part of teachers, and in many instances the schools are presided over by young teachers of little training or experience. Close supervision under the present system is an impossibility * * *. The greater sources of weakness in our rural schools are a dearth of properly trained teachers, a cumbersome system of government, a lack of close supervision, and failure to apply a thorough business policy in handling them.

The committee make eight recommendations, as follows:

1. We favor voluntary consolidation for Iowa schools, with a minimum area of 16 sections, with State aid annually from \$500 to \$1,500, to be classified by the department of public instruction; the teaching of agriculture and domestic science to be required, and no consolidated school to have less than two departments.
2. We recommend that the rural independent districts be discontinued.
3. We recommend that rural schools be under the inspection and supervision of the department of public instruction.
4. We recommend one rural inspector, one grade inspector, and one high-school inspector, under the supervision of the department of public instruction.
5. We recommend that provisions be made to properly safeguard the health of rural school children.
6. We recommend that practical courses of study be adopted for the rural schools.
7. We recommend the enactment of a law providing a suitable and sane plan for the adoption of textbooks, which will protect the people.
8. We recommend that additional normal schools be established and that normal training be provided in every high school that can successfully carry on such a course.

The members of the committee making the above recommendations represented many different interests. The names and occupations are as follows: B. W. Newman, chairman, Strawberry Point, lawyer, ex-State senator; Thomas H. Barnes, Crawfordsville, farmer; J. A. Woodruff, Storm Lake, county superintendent of schools; Arthur Springer, Wapello, lawyer, member of former educational commission; Robert Rienow Elkader, superintendent of schools; Frank D. Joseph, Des Moines, deputy State superintendent of public instruction.

The committee on industrial education made a special investigation as to the needs of the farm boys and girls with regard to vocational training. They recommend—

1. That the county educational board be empowered to employ two special supervisory teachers to have charge of the industrial work of the rural schools.
2. That some form of State aid be granted counties employing special teachers.
3. That State aid be given to township high schools when a satisfactory course in industrial work is offered.
4. That all State-aided schools be required to maintain courses in agriculture, domestic science, and manual training and be under the direct supervision of State inspectors:

The committee also recommend the adoption of a more effective teaching of agriculture and suggest the following needs:

1. An extension of normal training facilities to all high schools of the State which can properly qualify for it.
2. Legislation providing for a knowledge of the subject of agriculture on the part of those who are to teach.
3. Further summer-school facilities for the instruction in agriculture of teachers who are already in the service but not qualified to teach agriculture.
4. Courses of study which shall classify and outline the work in elementary agriculture and suggest methods of procedure which will enable the great mass of the teachers to apply effectively the teaching of agriculture along with the other essential branches in the general courses of study.
5. Further provision for training special teachers of agriculture for work as high school and normal school instructors.

The committee on State aid in their report include a recommendation that the State teachers' association ask at the next session of the legislature the enactment of a law giving aid to Iowa public schools as follows:

Consolidated schools of four or more departments shall receive annually as State aid the sum of \$1,500.

A consolidated school of three departments shall receive as State aid the sum of \$1,000.

A consolidated school of two departments shall receive as State aid the sum of \$500.

Any high school that shall meet the requirements fixed by the law providing for normal training in high schools shall receive as State aid the sum of \$500.

NORTH DAKOTA.

The North Dakota Rural School Commission was also created by the teachers of the State at the annual meeting of the North Dakota Educational Association in October, 1911. The commission was appointed "to recommend effective measures for the permanent uplift of the schools of the State." Their recommendations include principally a plea for the adoption of State laws which would require: (1) Longer terms and better attendance; (2) better financial sup-

port; (3) better school board organization; (4) consolidation of schools; (5) improved supervision and better teaching; (6) a campaign of education for rural school uplift and improvement.

They recommend that the term be at least 9 months and that all children from 8 to 15, inclusive, be required to attend; that the county tuition fund be increased to about 10 mills and be distributed on the basis of teachers employed and aggregate attendance of pupils, and that the State tuition fund should be distributed on the same basis; a county board of education to take over the work of local school boards in rural districts, with powers similar to city boards of education; a State board of education to prescribe rules for classifying schools, issuing certificates, conducting teachers' institutes and summer schools, and appointing inspectors and the State superintendent; a 1 mill county tax, and \$100,000 from the State annually to promote consolidation; a minimum wage of \$60 per month for teachers; and county superintendents to be appointed for five years by county boards of education with field deputies to assist in supervision.

WISCONSIN.

The Wisconsin committee is known as the "committee of fifteen." It was appointed by the State superintendent of schools to make a study of the condition of the common schools of the State, in the hope that as a result of their work public attention would become centered more upon the common schools than it has been in the past. The committee was organized into five subcommittees, one on each of the following subjects: Consolidation of rural schools; preparations and qualifications of teachers; supervision; social center movement; higher education for country communities.

The committee on consolidation have prepared a bulletin which has been printed by the State department of education. They recommend that the State law under which consolidation is effected be simplified and that a law be provided requiring the transportation of pupils when consolidation is effected. They recommend a county board of education to have the immediate charge of the consolidation of schools and that consolidation be made compulsory when the attendance falls below a certain point and where it is possible to make provision for the children to attend neighboring schools. They recommend further the transportation to be paid from State funds.

The committee on the preparation of teachers recommend that no new teacher shall be permitted to teach in any public school of the State without at least one year of professional training in addition to two years of high-school work. The committee on supervision recommend a county board of education to have general oversight of

the schools of the county, to select the county superintendent, and to provide assistants to him in supervising the schools of the county.

The committee on the social-center movement recommend that the use of the schoolhouse as a social center for the community be encouraged. The committee has in preparation a bulletin containing reports of what has been done in this field and offering suggestions for social-center work. They recommend further that the school be made a center for the social activities of the pupils, and a meeting place for all gatherings, such as farmers' meetings, farmers' clubs, socials, or community observance of special days; they recommend also the employment of a teacher who understands community life and is capable of being a leader in practical affairs. The committee as a whole recommend the adoption of the county as a unit of taxation for school affairs, that the present compulsory-attendance law be amended so as to reach every child, and that special aid be given to rural schools reaching a certain definite standard.

STATE SUPERVISORS AND INSPECTORS OF RURAL SCHOOLS.

At least 20 States now have in connection with the State departments of education special agents devoting their entire time to the rural schools, either as supervisors or inspectors or as special investigators to study their conditions and needs.

In 12 Southern States officers known as "State supervisors of rural schools," are appointed by the State education authorities and are paid jointly by the Southern Education Board and the Peabody Education Fund. It is their duty to assist in the development of a State system of elementary rural schools, to know intimately the rural school conditions in their respective States, and to conduct a campaign for improvement. A report of the work accomplished by them is given in another place in this chapter. The States in which these supervisors are employed are Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Arkansas. In Virginia, Kentucky, and Arkansas "second State supervisors" are appointed to devote their entire time to rural elementary schools for negroes.

The other States employing special agents for rural schools are as a rule the States that provide special financial aid to rural schools. In Massachusetts one of the agents of the State board of education devotes his entire time to rural schools, particularly to the State-aided schools in the poorer townships. The third assistant commissioner of education of New York has special oversight over rural education in that State. A "rural school inspector" is employed in each of the States of Missouri, Oklahoma, North Dakota, and Wisconsin. Illi-

inois has two "State supervisors of country and village schools." Minnesota employs a "State rural school commissioner."

The southern group of State supervisors.—These officers are legally appointed State officials in the departments of education and, under the general oversight of the State superintendents of public instruction, have charge of the administration and improvement of the rural schools. The office is permanent, so that the efficient supervisor may devote his life to his work. Eight were appointed in 1910, the other four in 1911.

It seemed wise after the appointment of these supervisors that a definite program of procedure for all be adopted. Accordingly a meeting was called in connection with the Conference for Education in the South at Jacksonville, Fla., in April, 1911. There three principal lines of effort were agreed upon: First, a campaign for increased local taxation; second, a campaign for consolidation, with transportation at public expense; and, third, the establishment of demonstration schools at strategic centers. It was agreed also to work as far as possible with and through the county superintendents. The State supervisor, therefore, visits rural schools with the county superintendent, studying with him the conditions and needs of the schools and suggesting ways and means of improvement. While in the county he takes an active part in the local movements for efficient schools, which are usually efforts to secure a local tax or to increase a previous levy, to consolidate weak schools, or to secure new buildings to replace old ones.

In two years the State supervisors have accomplished a great deal. Much of the great movement in the South for better rural schools is due to their work. Their activities in the field are indicated by the reports from 12 States for nine months in 1912, which show that they aided in 137 local tax campaigns, in 172 consolidation efforts, and in 226 campaigns for new buildings. They attended 438 community meetings. They spent 1,069 days in visiting schools in 511 counties, in the majority of which they were accompanied by the county superintendents. They met with 75 county boards of education and with 300 district boards of trustees. They visited 826 schools, 334 teachers' meetings, and assisted at 88 teachers' institutes. They have addressed 846 public meetings, furnished 269 articles to newspapers, and mailed 33,127 circular letters and 77,485 pamphlets to rural public-school teachers.

The teachers have received special attention from the supervisors. It was early realized that the larger number of teachers in the Southern States were young women with practically no professional training. It was realized, too, that these teachers must be instructed and

directed. To do this teachers' manuals for the elementary schools have been prepared by the State supervisors in eight States and issued by the State departments of education. These give the teachers in detail the principal points and the work to be done and the best methods of putting them into practice. The other States will issue manuals as soon as possible.

The work of establishing demonstration schools has been put into operation in a few States only. In Kentucky Mr. T. J. Coates, State supervisor of rural schools, has been particularly active along this line. In the session 1910-11 he selected 10 schools in each of 10 counties, well distributed throughout the State. These schools were placed under his immediate direction by the county superintendents. In each of them an efficient teacher was placed, who managed the school as directed by the State supervisor. With each demonstration school were grouped seven or eight other schools in the surrounding territory. For each group an extra teacher, called "substitute," was engaged. This substitute teacher took the place of the regular teacher in each school in the group in turn so that the regular teachers, one at a time, spent one or two weeks at the central school. In the past session the number of schools was increased to 200. With the appointment of county supervisors during the present year, as mentioned in another place in this chapter, the immediate oversight of the demonstration schools is placed in their hands. It is expected that the effect of the demonstration schools will gradually extend to all schools in the county and in the State, as it has now spread to the schools in the immediate vicinity. It is expected also that in time they will absorb many of the weaker schools in the vicinity.

A beginning has been made for a similar plan in Arkansas. Demonstration schools are directed by the State supervisors in all counties having county superintendents. There are about 100 such schools located in 15 counties. In Mississippi plans are now under way for the establishment of 250 demonstration schools similar to those in Kentucky and Arkansas. Other Southern States are making a beginning.

The State supervisors have been active also in promoting the employment of county rural-school supervisors. At a meeting held in Morgantown, W. Va., in June, 1911, the West Virginia system of district supervision was studied. Previous to this, one county supervisor had been employed by each of several of the State normal schools in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Louisiana, their salaries and expenses being paid from an appropriation by the Peabody Education Fund. Although connected with the State normal schools, the work of these supervisors was done in each case under the general supervision of the State supervisor.

State officers charged with the supervision of rural schools, 1911-12.

State.	Title.	Name.	Address.
Alabama.....	State supervisor of rural schools.	N. R. Baker.....	Montgomery.
Arkansas.....	do.....	J. L. Bond.....	Little Rock.
Do.....	Second State supervisor of rural schools.	L. M. Favrot.....	Do.
Florida.....	State inspector of rural schools.	G. M. Lynch.....	Gainesville.
Georgia.....	State supervisor of rural schools.	R. H. Powell.....	Atlanta.
Illinois.....	State supervisors of country and village schools.	U. J. Hoffman and W. S. Booth.	Springfield.
Kentucky.....	State supervisor of rural schools.	T. J. Coates.....	Frankfort.
Do.....	Second State supervisor of rural schools.	F. C. Button.....	Do.
Louisiana.....	State supervisor of rural schools.	C. J. Brown.....	Baton Rouge.
Massachusetts.....	Agent, State board of education.	J. E. Warren.....	Boston.
Minnesota.....	State rural school commissioner.	E. M. Phillips.....	St. Paul.
Mississippi.....	State supervisor of rural schools.	W. H. Smith.....	Jackson.
Missouri.....	State rural school inspector....	G. W. Reavis.....	Jefferson City.
New York.....	Third assistant State commissioner of education.	T. E. Finegan.....	Albany.
North Carolina.....	State supervisor of rural schools.	L. C. Brogden.....	Raleigh.
North Dakota.....	State rural school inspector....	N. C. Macdonald.....	Valley City.
Oklahoma.....	do.....	E. F. Proffitt.....	Oklahoma City.
South Carolina.....	State supervisor of rural schools.	W. K. Tate.....	Columbia.
Tennessee.....	do.....	F. B. Frazier.....	Nashville.
Virginia.....	do.....	T. S. Settle.....	Richmond.
Do.....	cond State supervisor of rural schools.	Jackson Davis.....	Do.
West Virginia.....	State supervisor of rural schools.	L. J. Hanifan.....	Charleston.
Wisconsin.....	State rural school inspector....	W. E. Larson.....	Madison.

COUNTY RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISORS.

County rural school supervisors, as assistants to county superintendents, have begun work in over 100 counties in the Southern States during the past year. These supervisors are trained teachers, able to give expert advice and direction to the rural teachers and to assist them in the management of their schools and in their instructional work. Their appointment was due largely to the efforts of the State supervisors of rural schools who have been, during the past two years, conducting an active campaign for expert supervision of the work of rural teachers. In four States—Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Mississippi—the State supervisors received a small amount of money from the Peabody Education Fund to be divided among the counties securing county supervisors as a part of the salaries of these officers. In the other States no outside aid has been used.

As far as information is at hand, Alabama in the fall of 1912 had 6 county supervisors; Arkansas, 1; Georgia, 8; Louisiana, 6; Kentucky, 70; Mississippi, 3; North Carolina, 3; South Carolina, 10; Tennessee, 5; and Virginia, 7. In South Carolina one of the county supervisors is employed by the State Normal and Industrial College at Rock Hill. West Virginia has district supervisors in 56 magis-

terial districts. In one of these districts, each of three graded-school principals has the oversight of four rural schools in the vicinity of his graded schools, dividing the time between teaching and supervising.

The appointment of supervisors in Kentucky was authorized by the legislature in June, 1912; in many of the other States no legal authorization exists. In Alabama the supervisors in Calhoun and Marshall Counties are paid from the county school funds as teachers and are detailed for supervisory work throughout the county. The next legislature will be asked to authorize the employment of county supervisors and the payment of their salary from the county funds.

Among the other States with county supervision several have provided special supervisors for rural schools, usually, however, under the title "assistant county superintendent." Maryland now has assistant county superintendents in 4 counties and also has rural supervisors in 2—Baltimore and Anne Arundel Counties. Pennsylvania, in the new school code adopted in 1911, requires the appointment of assistant superintendents in every county with over 200 teachers, and 2 assistants in every county with over 400 teachers. They are appointed by the officers of the county association of township school directors and are paid from the State school funds. In Indiana 3 counties have engaged assistant superintendents during the year. North Dakota has now such officers in 10 counties. Information to show the exact extent to which this movement has spread has not been collected. It is, however, becoming generally recognized that the county superintendent in the average county can not supervise the schools in any effective way unless some assistance is given to him.

Perhaps the most complete State system recently adopted for rural supervision is in Oregon. In each county with 60 or more school districts the county superintendent, by act of the legislature approved in June, 1911, is required to appoint a county board of education. This board is required to divide the county into supervisory districts, each to contain from 20 to 50 school districts, and to appoint a "district supervisor" for each district so created. This district supervisor must devote his entire time to supervision for at least 10 months in the year, and he may be engaged for 12 months. He is a county officer, responsible to the county through the county superintendent, and is paid by the county.

COUNTY RURAL SCHOOL INDUSTRIAL SUPERVISORS.

Another plan of aiding county superintendents in their supervisory work with the rural schools has met with considerable success in many of the Southern States. It consists of the appointment of a rural school "industrial teacher," working in all parts of the county

under the direction of the county superintendent. The work of this teacher consists in visiting the rural schools for the purpose of introducing industrial work, such as sewing, cooking, gardening, establishing cooking clubs, canning clubs, corn and tomato clubs, and school improvement associations. While not directly concerned with the academic work of the school, the effect of the visit of such a supervisor has been to produce an awakening in the entire life and work of the school. They have proved their value by showing themselves able to make many suggestions regarding the management of the school, the arrangement of the program, and methods of teaching of especial value to inexperienced county teachers.

The first industrial teacher was employed by the Jeanes fund in October, 1908, in Henrico County, Va. A negro woman, Virginia E. Randolph, who had taught 13 years in the county and had achieved notable success as a rural teacher, was appointed the first industrial supervisor. There were 23 negro schools in her county. The industrial teacher during the first year organized the parents into improvement leagues, and through these leagues secured very marked improvements in the conditions of the buildings and the grounds. She introduced into the schools work in cooking, sewing, mat making, and elementary agriculture.

Following the Henrico County plan, industrial supervision has been introduced among negro schools throughout the Southern States. The system is now the Virginia plan. Its adoption has been due almost wholly to the Jeanes Foundation, a fund for the benefit of negro education in the South. The industrial teachers are paid in whole or in part from the Jeanes fund, and are in part under the direction of the trustees of the fund. The teachers are appointed by the county superintendents and work under their immediate direction. In Virginia, where a second State supervisor of rural schools has been appointed to give his time wholly to negro schools, the negro industrial supervisors are in large measure under his control.

During the past year negro industrial supervisors were employed in 117 counties in 12 Southern States, as follows: Alabama, 17; Arkansas, 6; Florida, 3; Georgia, 13; Louisiana, 10; Maryland, 1; Mississippi, 15; North Carolina, 12; South Carolina, 8; Tennessee, 3; Texas, 6; Virginia, 17; and 6 other special teachers. Of this number 28 are men and were paid an average salary from the Jeanes fund of \$357.50; 75 are women and received on an average \$320.36. The term of service was about $7\frac{1}{2}$ months during the year. The total amount paid by the Jeanes Foundation for supervisors during the past year was \$35,782.50.

Some of the definite results of the work of the supervising teachers may be shown from the following figures, taken from report of 17 teachers in Virginia for the past year. In the territory covered by

these 17 teachers there are 469 negro schools, of which number 299 were visited regularly. During the year 9 new buildings were erected and 12 were enlarged at a combined cost of \$6,268, which does not include labor and material contributed; 12 schools were painted, 69 whitewashed; 37 sanitary outhouses were built; 102 schools were supplied with individual drinking cups. There were 348 improvement leagues organized, and they raised for school improvement nearly \$14,000.

One of the most interesting developments of the work of the negro industrial supervisors is their cooperation with the farm demonstration agents in working during the summer months with clubs of girls who cultivate home gardens and can vegetables and fruits for winter use. This plan has been carried out in Virginia more than in any other State, 8 of the supervisors being employed for 12 months. During the past year there were 267 girls in garden clubs with 202 separate gardens. The girls "put up" nearly 4,000 jars of tomatoes and other vegetables from their gardens, and in addition 6,000 jars of materials raised by the girls were "put up" by their mothers. In addition to the garden work and instruction in canning, the supervisors gave regular lessons during the summer to the club girls in sewing, cooking, simple dressmaking, housekeeping, poultry raising, and in improving the general appearances of their homes on the inside and out.

Rural school supervisors of this kind are, however, not confined to negro schools. Virginia has the present year 7 white supervisors working among the white schools in 6 counties. They are appointed by the State department of education and are paid from the State school funds. They are found in the following counties: Albemarle, Rockingham, Charles City, New Kent, Buchanan, Henrico, and Halifax. The last-named has 2 supervisors.

Similar industrial teachers for white schools have also been provided in Georgia and Louisiana, in about 12 counties. Their appointment in these States has come about through the initiative and the generosity of Mr. N. O. Nelson, of New Orleans and St. Louis, who paid their salaries for the first two years. The first of these supervisors was put to work in Putnam County, Ga., in September, 1909. She was placed in charge of the county superintendent. She began work by getting acquainted with the teachers and pupils, and she was invited to the homes and became acquainted with the parents. She talked to teachers, pupils, and parents about sewing and cooking, shopwork, gardening, and the general improvement of the schoolhouses and grounds. She introduced into the schools sewing and cooking for girls and shopwork for boys, established school and home gardens for both boys and girls, and organized canning clubs

and school improvement associations. She raised a library fund and a little money for extending the length of the school term. Her services were very much in demand, and she was freely sent for and entertained in all parts of the county. She was regarded not as an instructor, but as a supervisor and leader. Three additional teachers were secured the second year, and the work was inaugurated in Louisiana. The plan has proved so successful that several counties have taken over the supervisor and are now paying the salaries.

STATE ORGANIZERS OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT ASSOCIATIONS.

Another movement which is accomplishing widely extended and definite results in rural school improvement, particularly in the South, comes from activities of State, county, and local school improvement associations. These associations are composed of the school patrons, both men and women, who meet regularly at the school buildings for the purpose (1) of improving in every possible way the school building and grounds; (2) of placing in the school facilities for health and comfort as well as for education; (3) of making the school yard suitable for a playground; (4) of planting trees, shrubs, and flowers to make the yard and building more beautiful and attractive; (5) of making the school a social center and thus creating a more active interest in the school on the part of the patrons. School improvement associations as local organizations have existed in many States, both North and South, for many years, in Maine and Ohio particularly. Only in 6 Southern States, however, has their organization been made a function of the State department of education.

Virginia, Tennessee, Kentucky, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Arkansas each has in the State department of education a State organizer of school improvement associations. At the present time the positions are occupied by Mrs. L. R. Dashiell, in Virginia; Miss Virginia P. Moore, in Tennessee; Mrs. Charles P. Weaver, in Kentucky; Miss Susie V. Powell, in Mississippi; Miss Agnes Morris, in Louisiana; and Miss Eva Reichardt, in Arkansas. They were appointed by the State departments, but are paid by the Southern Education Board and the Peabody Fund.

Their work consists largely in assisting in organizing county and local school improvement associations and in stimulating the associations when organized into continued activity for the betterment of the schools they represent. The State organizers have issued publications explaining to the county superintendents and others interested and to the teachers how to organize county and local associations. The most complete of these publications are those issued by the Mississippi State department.

In a recent bulletin prepared by Miss Powell is outlined in full the plan of rural school improvement through the school improvement associations. It gives full directions for organizing county and local associations and includes suggestive programs for the observance of special days: Clean-up and beautify day, in October; Health day, in November; Library day, in December; Arbor day, in January; Club day, in February; Field day, in March. The names suggest the purpose of the special days. Directions are given showing also how the special-day programs which are given by both pupils and patrons may be correlated with the instructional work of the school.

The activities of the State organizers include visiting rural schools, usually with the county superintendents, meeting with citizens to organize improvement leagues, attending meetings of local and county leagues, making public addresses, preparing articles for newspapers and circular letters and pamphlets for teachers, and in personal correspondence with league officers and teachers on matters pertaining to the improvement leagues. In several cases the State organizers of improvement associations are also State agents for the promotion of girls' tomato and canning clubs.

Nearly all the other Southern States have State and county school improvement associations without official status. The services of their officers and members are purely voluntary.

BOYS' AND GIRLS' AGRICULTURAL CLUBS.

The boys' and girls' agricultural-club movement is becoming more closely connected with the school and the work of the clubs a definite part of the school program. The growth of the movement throughout the United States has been rapid during the past year. This has been due largely to the activities of the Bureau of Plant Industry of the United States Department of Agriculture, through the Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work, which has been engaged in fostering the movement in the 12 cotton States for the past 7 years, and the section of field studies and demonstrations-club work of the Office of Farm Management, which began similar work July 1, 1912, in other States.

Boys' and girls' corn clubs and other agricultural clubs have been in existence as local district, county, or State institutions for at least 16 years. Among the first clubs were those established in Pennsylvania, Illinois, Iowa, and other States of the Middle West. The national club movement, however, began in 1907 in Holmes County, Miss., while W. H. Smith, now State supervisor of rural schools, was county superintendent. It was organized as a part of the farm demonstration work in the Southern States, begun in 1904 under

the direction of the late Dr. Seaman A. Knapp, special agent in charge of farmers' cooperative demonstration work of the United States Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Plant Industry.

The first clubs organized were corn clubs for boys from 10 to 18 years of age, in which each boy cultivated on his father's farm one acre of corn in competition with other boys in the club. There were 162 members of the Holmes County club in 1907. The number has grown from this as a beginning until in 1912 there were approximately 100,000 boys enrolled in corn clubs in the Southern States. In 1910 girls' garden and canning clubs were organized in South Carolina and Virginia. There were 325 girls enrolled the first year and about 3,500 the second year. In 1912 approximately 30,000 girls are enrolled, each growing one-tenth of an acre of tomatoes and canning for home use and for market her own garden products. Cotton clubs, potato clubs, pig clubs, poultry clubs, etc., have also been established.

According to the statement of the Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work, the movement was inaugurated with the following purposes in view:

1. To afford the rural teacher a simple and easy method of teaching practical agriculture in the school in the way it must be acquired to be of any real service, mainly by actual work upon the farm.
2. To prove that there is more in the soil than the farmer has ever gotten out of it; to inspire boys with a love of the land by showing them how they can get wealth out of it by tilling it in a better way, and thus be helpful to the family and the neighborhood.
3. To give the boys a definite, worthy purpose, and to stimulate a friendly rivalry among them.

It was designed also to secure rural cooperation. Wherever the work has been inaugurated county superintendents of education, the school teachers, county demonstration agents, business men, newspapers, ministers, and parents have all united for carrying forward the movement in a way which has fostered rural progress along all lines.

Corn was selected for demonstration because it may be grown profitably in nearly all parts of the United States. A more common knowledge of it is possessed by country boys than of any other one crop. It yields more food to the acre than any other green crop, and a good crop means cheaper food for men and animals. Its cultivation is comparatively easy, and the principles of agriculture learned in its cultivation are fundamental and are of broad application.

The work usually is organized with the county for a unit and is initiated through the county superintendent, who secures the co-operation of the teachers. Each teacher explains the plans to her boys

and secures the names of those who desire to belong to the county corn club. The boys of the entire county are then assembled in some central place for organization and instruction. For the first year it has been found advantageous to furnish seed, so that every boy in the contest is assured of first-class material to plant. The boards of trade, bankers, and business men often provide funds for purchasing the seed. After the first year each boy selects his own seed. Merchants and business men are asked to provide prizes.

When the organization is completed the names and addresses of the boys enrolled are sent to the United States Department of Agriculture. Each boy agrees to raise 1 acre of corn in accordance with the directions furnished him. The department sends them circulars of information giving instruction in regard to seed selection, the preparation, fertilization, and cultivation of the soil, etc. They also send a special form which, when filled by the boy, gives a complete record of his work in cultivating his acre of corn, including a description of the method of cultivation and an estimate of the cost and the value of the crop. The following rules govern the clubs:

- (1) Boys joining clubs and entering contests must be between 10 and 18 years of age on January 1 of any given year.
- (2) No boy shall contest for a prize unless he becomes a member of a club.
- (3) The members of the clubs must agree to study the instructions of the Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work.
- (4) Each boy must plan his own crop and do his own work. A small boy may hire help for heavy plowing in preparing the soil.
- (5) Exhibits must be delivered to the county superintendent of education on or before November 1.
- (6) The land and corn must be carefully measured in the presence of at least two disinterested witnesses, who shall attest the certificate of the boy.
- (7) In awarding prizes the following basis shall be used:

	Per cent.
(a) Greatest yield per acre	30
(b) Best exhibit of 10 ears	20
(c) Best written account showing history of crop	20
(d) Best showing of profit on investment based on the commercial price of corn	30

The results from an agricultural standpoint have been wonderful. In 1911, for instance, three boys made records which are probably better records in corn production than ever before made:

Julius Hill, of Attalla, Ala., produced $212\frac{1}{2}$ bushels on 1 acre, at a cost of 8.6 cents per bushel.

Bennie Beeson, of Monticello, Miss., produced $227\frac{1}{2}$ bushels on an acre, at a cost of 14 cents per bushel.

Ben Leath, of Kensington, Ga., produced $214\frac{5}{7}$ bushels on an acre, at a cost of 14.2 cents.

Four other boys produced from 210 to 225 bushels on their acres, at a cost of from 20 to 35 cents per bushel.

The following statements, taken from the official report of the Department of Agriculture, will give some idea of the records made:

Fifty-two boys in Georgia received diplomas, signed by the governor and other officials, for producing more than 100 bushels per acre each, at an average cost of less than 30 cents per bushel; 21 Georgia club members, from the seventh congressional district alone, grew 2,641 bushels, at an average cost of 23 cents per bushel; 19 boys in Gordon County, Ga., averaged 90 bushels, 10 of them making 1,058 bushels. The 10 boys who stood highest in Georgia averaged 169.9 bushels and made a net profit of more than \$100 each, besides prizes won. In Alabama 100 boys averaged 97 bushels, at an average cost of 27 cents. In Monroe County, Ala., 25 boys averaged 78 bushels. In Yazoo County, Miss., 21 boys averaged 111.6 bushels, at an average cost of 19.7 cents. In Lee County, Miss., 17 boys averaged 82 bushels, at an average cost of 21 cents. Sixty-five boys in Mississippi averaged 109.9 bushels, at an average cost of 25 cents. Twenty Mississippi boys averaged 140.6 bushels, at an average cost of 23 cents. Ninety-two boys in Louisiana grew 5,791 bushels on 92 acres; 10 of these boys went above 100 bushels, although the weather conditions were very unfavorable in that State. In North Carolina 100 boys averaged 99 bushels. In the same State 432 boys averaged 63 bushels. In Buncombe County, N. C., 10 boys averaged 88 bushels. In Sussex County, Va., 16 boys averaged 82 bushels. Fifteen boys in the vicinity of Memphis, Tenn., where the business men contributed about \$3,000 to aid the work, averaged 127.4 bushels, at an average cost of 28 cents per bushel.

In each of the cotton States a State prize is given for the best record. The prize usually consists of a trip to Washington, and is furnished by interested individuals or associations. The winners for 1912, as certified by the United States Department of Agriculture, were as follows:

Boy prize winners in Southern States in raising corn.

State.	Name.	Address.	Yield.		Cost per bushel.
			Bushels.	Pounds.	
South Carolina.....	Ernest Joye.....	Venters.....	207.18		40.0
Mississippi.....	Carlous Reddock.....	Summerland.....	206.60		13.6
Alabama.....	Willie Atchison.....	McCalla.....	198.25		16.5
Alabama.....	J. P. Leach.....	Union Grove.....	196.27		10.3
North Carolina.....	George E. West.....	Kinston.....	184.00	46	19.0
Georgia.....	Byron Bolton.....	Zeigler.....	177.00	33	13.5
Virginia.....	Frank Brockman.....	A mherst.....	167.00		22.5
Tennessee.....	Herbert McKibbon.....	Culleoka.....	159.00	20	
Georgia.....	Walter Bridges.....	Dawson.....	156.00	6	31.25
Arkansas.....	Lester Carrard.....	Magnolia.....	134.20		
Louisiana.....	John M. Cobb.....	Vowells Mill.....	131.50		15.0
Florida.....	Richard Miller.....	Baker.....	129.29		26.0
Texas.....	Earle Davis.....	Grapeland.....	122.50		9.4
Arkansas.....	Robert Connally.....	Mena.....	117.67		
Oklahoma.....	Elston Coleman.....	Newkirk.....	101.08		
North Carolina.....	Herbert Allen.....	Pungo.....	83.00		14.2

The organization and methods of the girls' garden and canning clubs are similar to those of the boys' corn clubs. The usual crop raised is one-tenth of an acre of tomatoes. The girls cultivate the crop under the directions furnished by the Department of Agriculture. They preserve the tomatoes in glass or tin cans. The object of the work is—

First, to stimulate interest and wholesome cooperation among members of the family in the home.

Second, to provide some means by which the girls may earn money at home and at the same time get the education and viewpoint necessary for the ideal farm life.

Third, to encourage rural families to provide purer and better food at a lower cost and to utilize the surplus and otherwise waste products of the garden and orchard.

Fourth, to furnish earnest teachers a plan for aiding their pupils and helping their communities.

The work in the Northern and Western States, begun in July, 1912, by the Office of Farm Management, was made possible by the appropriation bill for the Department of Agriculture for the fiscal year 1912-13. By it the sum of \$300,000 was provided to "investigate and encourage the adoption of improved methods of farm management and farm practice and for farm demonstration work." This is in addition to the \$332,960 provided to continue the work in the South inaugurated by the late Dr. S. A. Knapp. Part of this amount will be used for the encouragement of boys' and girls' agricultural clubs in the Northern and Western States. While they will be organized along similar lines to those in the cotton States, they will be more closely connected with the State colleges of agriculture. Each State club agent will be employed jointly by the State college of agriculture and by the Bureau of Plant Industry. This will connect the national work with the boys' and girls' agricultural clubs already established by the State colleges in the greater number of States.

Sixteen States are now organized in cooperation with the Office of Farm Management for national club work, with two or more cooperative agents in each State. The work is planned for the farm and home, rather than from a school or pedagogical point of view. Its purpose is to teach the children to grow a crop economically and efficiently. The work is initiated in most instances through the agency of the school and may, therefore, be made a definite part of the educative work of the school by the school authorities. Special instructions are furnished to all club members by the Office of Farm Management in accordance with the line of work pursued by the club, which, in the Northern and Western States, is not confined

wholly to corn and canning clubs. The circulars of instruction are as follows:

Class 1. Boys' national corn club.

1. Organization circular.
2. Instructions on how to grow an acre of corn.
3. Special contests in corn-club work.
4. Crop report blank.
5. Instructions to club organizers.
6. Seed selection.
7. Score card.

Class 2. Girls' garden and canning club.

1. Organization circular.
2. Canning tomatoes at home and for clubs.
3. Care and management of tomato plat.
4. Crop report blank.
5. Suggestions to club leaders.
6. Score card.
7. Special contests.

Class 3. Boys' and girls' potato club.

1. Organization circular.
2. Instructions in potato culture.
3. Crop report blank.
4. Special contests.
5. Score card.
6. How to use the potato.
7. Suggestions to leaders.

Class 4. Other instructions for all classes.

1. State and district field reports.
2. Enrollment blanks and cards.
3. Farmers' bulletins on corn, potatoes, and tomatoes.
4. Premiums; their use and abuse.
5. Composition outlines for "How I made my crop."

In the Northern and Western States the work has not been organized long enough to result in many State contests. However, in Maryland, Kentucky, Iowa, West Virginia, and Massachusetts State prizes were given for 1912. The winners were:

State.	Name.	Address.	Yield (bushels).	Cost per bushel.
Maryland.....	Leroy Nichols.....	Highland.....	150.00	13.33
Kentucky.....	Lester Bryant.....	Rockfield.....	148.55	12.75
Iowa.....	Earl Zeller.....	Cooper.....	141.45	9.75
West Virginia.....	Ethan Allen.....	Morgantown.....	140.20	25.00
Massachusetts.....	Ernest Russell.....	South Hadley.....	68.90	70.00

SCHOOL CREDIT FOR HOME INDUSTRIAL WORK.

A movement is growing throughout the country to connect more definitely the home life and the school life of the child through the device of crediting the child in school for household or farm work

done at home. It may be as a required part of the school work, or as optional work supplementary to the school work which, if done and done satisfactorily, gives the pupil a higher school rating.

There are two distinct schemes in operation, differing principally in the character of the work for which credit is given and the relation of the work to the school:

First. A single definite piece of work selected to be done at home in part under the direction and supervision of the school, which can be carried through from the beginning to the completion, and requires supplementary reading and study in the school.

Second. The ordinary tasks that require doing daily in the home and on the farm. Credit is given for doing the task; extra credit for doing it well. The parent is the judge of the home work and rates the child according to the quantity and quality of the work done.

The first scheme is becoming generally known as the "home-project" plan. This expression as used in this connection probably originated in Massachusetts, where it is applied to the practice work in the departments of agriculture in rural high schools and where the work is done at the home and not on a school farm. According to the regulations of the Massachusetts State department of education, every boy studying agriculture in the State-aided departments of agriculture in public high schools must carry out some farming project at home. The project and the study necessary to carry it out require about one-half of the pupil's time. The "farming project is a thing to be done on the farm, which, in the preparation for doing it and in carrying it to a successful result, would involve a thorough-going educational process." Projects suggested are: Keeping a pen of poultry; caring for a select part of an orchard; raising a specified crop of potatoes; caring for one or two cows, including the feeding, cleaning, milking, and testing the milk. In all cases the farm project includes keeping careful and accurate records of the work.

This plan has been adopted widely by individual schools throughout the United States. Elementary schools, as well as high schools, have taken it up, and household projects for girls are included as well as farm projects for boys.

For boys below the high school the home project consists usually of the cultivation of a plat of corn, potatoes, or some other common crop; and for the girls breadmaking, plain cooking, canning, and sewing, including such work as making aprons or other articles of clothing.

The plan seems to be effective. It requires, in the case of the farm project, that the school-teacher visit the home for inspection of the work. The home projects both for boys and girls are made the

bases for much reading and study at the school and for classroom discussion.

The second scheme attempts to encourage the pupil to help in the regular home work and to do his part well. As a rule where it is in operation no direct attempt is made to make the work educative, except as the pupil receives instructions from his parents. No attempt is made to correlate it with the work inside the school. It makes teachers of the parents, as far as the home duties are concerned, and puts upon the parents the responsibility of judging the quantity and quality of the work done. This plan is in operation in many sections throughout the United States. Perhaps more has been done in Oregon than in any other one State. State Supt. L. R. Alderman has issued a small pamphlet explaining the plan as in operation in Oregon. The following is taken from his pamphlet:

The plan costs no money, will take but little school time, and can be put into operation in every part of the State at once. It will create a demand for expert instruction later on. It is to give school credit for industrial work done at home. The mother and father are to be recognized as teachers, and the school-teacher put into the position of one who cares about the habits and tastes of the whole child. Then the teacher and the parents will have much in common. Every home has the equipment for industrial work and has some one who uses it with more or less skill.

The school has made so many demands on the home that the parents have in some cases felt that all the time of the child must be given to the school. But an important thing that the child needs, along with school work, is established habits of home making. What one does depends as much upon habit as upon knowledge. The criticism that is most often made upon industrial work at school is that it is so different from the work done at the home that it does not put the child into that sympathetic relation with the home which, after all, is for him and the home the most important thing in the world. Juvenile institutions find that they must be careful not to institutionalize the child to the extent that he may not be contented in a real home. In my opinion it will be a great thing for the child to want to help his parents do the task that needs to be done, and want to do it in the best possible way. The reason that so many country boys are now the leading men of affairs is because early in life they had the responsibility of home thrust upon them. I am sure that the motto "Everybody helps" is a good one.

But one says: "How can it be brought about? How can the school give credit for industrial work done at home?" This may be accomplished by printed slips asking the home to take account of the work that the child does at home under the instruction of the home, and explaining that credit will be given this work on the school record. These slips must be prepared for children according to age, so that the child will not be asked to do too much, for it must be clearly recognized that children must have time for real play. The required tasks must not be too arduous, yet they must be real tasks. They must not be tasks that will put extra work on parents except in the matter of instruction and observation. They may well call for the care of animals, and should include garden work for both boys and girls. Credit in school for home industrial work (with the parents' consent) should count as much as any one study in school.

The general plan as worked out by one Oregon school is as follows: A schedule of home tasks and the credits to be allowed was prepared, the credits being expressed in minutes. A few of these tasks are: Building fire in morning, 5 minutes; milking a cow, 5 minutes; cleaning horse, 10 minutes; feeding hens, 5 minutes; making and baking bread, 60 minutes; preparing breakfast for family, 30 minutes; washing and wiping dishes, 15 minutes; washing and ironing own clothes that are worn at school, 120 minutes, etc. No pupil is obliged to do any of this work. The parent sends to the teacher each morning a signed list containing the record of the work of the child the previous day. The list is prepared by the child. When the total number of credits for any pupil amounts to a day, the pupil is entitled to a holiday. At this particular school prizes are given to the six pupils obtaining the most credits during the term, and every pupil carrying out the work has 10 per cent added to his standing in the regular school work.

In Missouri considerable headway has been made with a similar plan which is used in all the schools of several counties. Its introduction has come about largely through the adoption of a school report card known as the "parent-teacher partnership report card," prepared by Mrs. Mary E. De Garmo, of St. Louis, chairman of the country life department of the National Congress of Mothers.

Mrs. DeGarmo's card contains a printed list of school subjects, reading, arithmetic, etc., with blank spaces for each month in which the teacher indicates the pupil's standing in each subject. The card is then sent to the parent. It contains also a printed list of home industrial subjects, with blanks for each month in which the parent is asked to indicate by the letters E, G, M, and P, denoting excellent, good, medium, and poor, the progress made by the child in the different industrial subjects. The card is then returned to the teacher. The subjects for girls are sweeping, dusting, bread making, cake making, sewing, washing dishes, and ironing. For boys the subjects are feeding stock, milking, cleaning horses, providing fuel, and feeding poultry. Other subjects may be added by the parent if they are regular work for the boy or girl. It is to be noted that no record of time is asked of the parent, simply a record of progress in the quality of the work done by the child. The teacher in rating the pupil for the term or year regards the home industrial work as one subject in the pupil's course of study equal, as far as the standing of the pupil is concerned, with any one of the regular school subjects.

This particular plan of giving credit for home work has been formulated with two special facts in view: First, many farm boys and girls have their entire time outside of school taken with farm and home duties, and consequently in their school work are apt to fall behind the pupils who have little or no home work; second, when the

home work is taken into account in determining the school standing of the pupil, it becomes dignified in the eyes of the pupil and its performance a pleasure rather than a drudgery. It was devised especially to encourage the boy and girl doing many home tasks; also to make the home duties educative and their importance appreciated both by parents and by the children.

IMPORTANT LEGISLATION AFFECTING RURAL EDUCATION.

During the scholastic year 1911-12 the legislatures of 14 States met in regular session, namely: Arizona, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Vermont, and Virginia. Important legislation affecting rural schools primarily was passed in only a few of these. The following paragraphs note briefly the most important:

Kentucky.—The Kentucky enactments will probably prove far-reaching in their effect. The power of the State superintendent of public instruction has been greatly increased by a provision authorizing him to inspect and examine all schools receiving funds directly or indirectly from the State. For this special duty \$1,500 is added to his annual salary, and two assistants are provided at \$1,000 each, to whom he is authorized to give full power of attorney to act for him; \$2,000 was appropriated for extra clerical work in the department office. The State disbursement for common schools was, in 1910-11, approximately \$3,105,105, of which amount \$2,459,865 was expended on the rural schools. As every public school maintaining a session of at least six months receives a part of this fund, the State department of education is now in a better position than ever before to give effective assistance in the improvement of the rural schools.

Two measures looking toward more and better supervision were passed. The county superintendent now must devote his entire time to the duties of his office. The minimum salary has been increased from \$400 to \$600 and the maximum from \$1,500 to \$2,500. The county boards of education have been authorized to employ "supervisors" for rural schools as assistants to the county superintendents. They will be paid from county funds. In addition to the supervisory duties they also must act as truant officers to enforce the compulsory education laws. No limit is fixed to the number that may be employed in any county. This provision was approved by the governor of the State in June, 1912. Before the opening of the schools for the school year 1912-13 approximately 50 supervisors had been engaged. In December, 1912, there were 70.

A new method for the distribution of the school funds has been authorized. The county board may now place in one common school

fund the money received from the State and that raised in the county by tax levy, and distribute the common fund in the county in whatever way will best make an efficient system of schools for the county. The State fund will be used for teachers' salaries, which may range from \$35 to \$70. The amount paid to any teacher is to be based on and regulated by her qualifications and the number of children actually in attendance in proportion to the total number of school age in the district. In determining the amount the county officials must conform to the rules of the State department of education.

The law makes provision also for the consolidation of rural schools. The county board is empowered to lay off a territory including several subdistricts and submit to the voters thereof the proposition of consolidation and of a tax sufficient to provide for a consolidated school and the transportation of pupils to it. Districts already consolidated are authorized to pay for pupils' transportation, and public funds already used for such purposes are validated. Several consolidated schools had been established during the past few years and pupils had been transported at public expense. A question had arisen regarding the legality of the expenditures for these schools and for the transportation of pupils. This has been definitely settled by the action of the legislature.

South Carolina.—The South Carolina Legislature passed two acts which will probably do much to improve rural schools. Under the old law county superintendents were elected for two or four years in the fall, taking office the 1st day of January. The activities of the superintendents before election time on other than school affairs and the many changes resulting from the elections occurring in the middle of the school year, both worked to the injury of the school. This situation will be largely remedied by the new law which extends for six months the terms of all superintendents now in office and begins the new terms on July 1 instead of January 1.

To encourage the establishment of union and consolidated schools to replace the one-room one-teacher schools, the State has provided special aid. Not less than \$15,000 is to be appropriated annually "to assist rural districts in establishing, maintaining, and improving rural graded schools." Either \$200 or \$300 may be received by a school. The first amount is paid on the following conditions: The district must levy a special school tax of at least 4 mills, employ two certificated teachers for a term of not less than six months, maintain a school with an enrollment of at least 50 pupils and with an average daily attendance of not fewer than 30, provide a comfortable and sanitary building with the minimum equipment prescribed by the State board of education, and use a course of study and a classification approved by the State board. The second amount is paid to larger districts under the same general conditions. Each district, however, must maintain a school seven months in the year, with three

certificated teachers, and an enrollment of 75 pupils, 40 of whom must be in daily attendance. The school trustees with the consent of the county superintendent may use the money provided by the State to furnish transportation.

The provisions of the South Carolina act are very similar to a *Virginia* act passed in 1910 which appropriated \$25,000 a year for two years. Evidently it has proved a successful and popular enactment in Virginia, as the legislature has increased the appropriation for 1913 and 1914 to \$75,000 for each year.

New Jersey has provided for the appointment of county superintendents by the State commissioner of education with the advice and consent of the State board of education, instead of by the State board as formerly. The appointee must hold the highest teachers' certificate issued in the State and must have been a resident of the county for three years immediately preceding his appointment. All county superintendents are to be paid \$3,000 per year in the future and they must devote their entire time to the duties of the office.

RECENT PUBLICATIONS ON RURAL EDUCATION.

An increased amount of literature on rural schools and rural education has appeared during the past year. A few of these only may be mentioned here.

"Country Life and the Country School" is the title of a book written by Mabel Carney, director of the country school department of the Illinois State Normal University. Miss Carney discusses the farm problem, the country home, the country church, the grange, farmers' institutes, the agricultural press, the country road, and the country school. Her book deals especially with the present status of these rural agencies and makes suggestions concerning their possibilities. Under the country school she treats the school as an agency in the solution of the farm problem, the consolidated school, the work of the teacher and country school supervision. The book contains much information of interest and many valuable suggestions.

"The Country School," by Homer H. Seerley, president of the Iowa State Teachers' College, has recently appeared. The scope of the book may be seen from the following topics which are included: The country community, the country school, country life, what education can do, the organization of the school, the organization of a country community, the program, school management, the recitation, supervision, the place of recreation, taxation and the State, co-operation, the proper unit in school organization, standardization, the teacher supply conditions, and prospects.

Miss Jessie Field, formerly county superintendent of Page County, Iowa, has published a book entitled "The Corn Lady," which gives

the story of a successful country teacher's work in a series of letters written to her father.

Prof. E. P. Cubberley, of Leland Stanford Junior University, is the author of a little book entitled "The Improvement of Rural Schools." This is one of the Riverside educational monographs edited by Henry Suzzallo, of Teachers' College, Columbia University. In this book Mr. Cubberley discusses the rural-school problem, the need of better support, of better organization, and of better supervision.

"The Farm Boys and Girls" is the title of a new book in the rural science series edited by L. H. Bailey. This book was written by W. A. McKeever, professor of philosophy at the Kansas State Agricultural College. In it he discusses the various agencies entering into the life of the farm boy and girl. Among these is included a chapter on the rural school, what schooling the country boy should have and what schooling the country girl should have. The entire book may be said, however, to be a book on rural education as the various agencies discussed are all viewed from the standpoint of their influence on the development of the mind and the heart and the body of the boy and girl.

Mr. C. Walter Fiske, in his book which has recently appeared, entitled "The Challenge of the Country," discusses education for country life among other topics relating to the rural problem.

The 1912 Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education is devoted to the question of school supervision, Part I to urban supervision, and Part II to rural supervision. The second part contains the following papers:

The Status of the Supervision of Rural Schools in the United States. A. C. Monahan, specialist in rural education, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

District Supervision (West Virginia and Oregon as examples). L. J. Hanifan, State supervisor of rural schools, Charleston, W. Va.

Rural Supervision in New England Townships and Union Districts. J. E. Warren, special agent of the State board of education, Boston, Mass.

Work of the State Supervisors of Rural Schools in the South. Wallace Lund, Southern Education Board, Washington, D. C.

The Relation of the County Superintendent to the School Directors and to the State Department of Education. U. J. Hoffman, State supervisor of country and village schools, Springfield, Ill.

The Development of a County System of Expert Supervision, including Suburban, Village, and Rural Schools. Albert S. Cook, superintendent of the schools of Baltimore County, Towson, Md.

Methods of Supervision in Berks County, Pennsylvania. E. M. Rapp, county superintendent, Reading, Pa.

Supervision of Rural Schools for Negroes. Jackson Davis, State supervisor of rural elementary schools, Richmond, Va.

Bibliography on Rural-School Supervision. J. D. Wolcott, acting librarian, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Included in the literature on rural education issued by State departments of education and by educational institutions during the past year have been a number of valuable bulletins on consolidation or centralization of rural schools and transportation of pupils at public expense. Some of the most important of these bulletins that have come to the bureau are as follows:

The state department of North Carolina has issued a publication prepared by L. C. Brogden, State supervisor of rural schools, which discusses in a very complete way the efficiency and economy of the one-teacher system of rural schools and of the consolidated system. The bulletin contains the results of a study made in 21 counties in North Carolina, including the number of white rural schools with one teacher, the enrollment, length of the annual session, cost per pupil, the length of the recitation periods, the number of recitations per day, and the amount of time during the year which the county superintendent spent in the school. It contains also the results of a study of consolidation in the country as a whole and of several typical consolidated schools in Virginia and elsewhere.

A bulletin prepared by F. B. Frazier, State supervisor of rural schools of Tennessee, gives the results of a study made in Tennessee by Mr. Frazier similar to that made in North Carolina by Mr. Brogden. This bulletin also describes several consolidated schools in various parts of the country.

Teachers College, Columbia University, has issued during the year a valuable publication giving the results of a study into two types of rural schools by Ernest Burnham, director of the rural school department of the State normal school at Kalamazoo, Mich. Mr. Burnham has made a study of the economic and social conditions of a township with the district school system and a township with a consolidated system.

Other publications on rural education are:

- Alabama. State board of health. Department of sanitation. Rural sanitation adapted to schools, churches, homes, etc. [Montgomery, 1912?] 32 p. 8°.
[Bishop, E. C., and others.] Teaching agriculture in rural and graded schools. A correlation scheme with suggestive lessons on the topic "corn." Ames, Iowa, 1912. 47 p. 8°. (Iowa State College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts. Dept. of agricultural extension. School circular No. 1.)
[Cary, C. P.] List of books for township libraries in the State of Wisconsin, for the years 1910 and 1911. Madison, Wis., Democrat Printing Co., State printer, 1910. 366 p. 8°.

Annotated.

- Cotton, F. A., and others. Consolidation of school districts. Report of a sub-committee of the Committee of Fifteen appointed by the State superintendent of schools to investigate conditions in the rural schools of Wisconsin. Madison, Wis., Democrat Printing Co., State printer, 1912. 93 p., illus., plans. 8°. (Bulletin No. 17.)

- Illinois. Department of public instruction. The one-room country schools and village schools. Springfield, Ill., Illinois State Journal Co., State printers, 1912. 105 p., illus., plans. 8°. (Circular No. 65.)
- Iowa. Better Iowa schools commission. Report to the Fifty-eighth Annual Session of the Iowa State Teachers' Association. [n. p.] 1912. 66 p. 8°.
- Layhue, J. M. Consolidation of rural schools and transportation of pupils. Olympia, Wash., E. L. Boardman, public printer, 1911. 120 p., illus., plans. 8°. (Washington (State) Dept. of education. Bulletin No. 7, Aug. 1, 1911.)
- Massachusetts. Board of education. Agricultural project study . . . Boston, Agricultural education service, 1912. 38 p. 8°. (Bulletin No. 4. Whole No. 8.)
- Agricultural project study bibliography . . . Boston, 1912. 48 p. 8°. (Bulletin No. 6. Whole No. 10.)
- Project study outlines . . . Boston, 1912. 30 p. 8°. (Bulletin No. 5. Whole No. 9.)
- Mississippi. State department of education. School Improvement Association. [Jackson?] 1912. 63 p. 8°.
- Contains plans for the organization of improvement associations. Gives suggestions for activities of an association when formed.
- North Dakota. Rural school commission. Report to the North Dakota Education Association, at the meeting in Grand Forks, October, 1912. Embracing recommendations for the permanent uplift of the rural schools of the State. Valley City, N. Dak., Times-Record Printing Co. [1912.] 30 p. 8°.
- N. C. Macdonald, chairman.
- Oklahoma. State Board of Education. Rural school consolidation . . . 1911. [n. p. 1911.] 29 p., illus., plans. 8°.
- Schmidt, C. C. The consolidation of rural schools in North Dakota. Grand Forks, N. Dak., University of North Dakota, 1912. 85 p. 16°. (University of North Dakota. Departmental bulletins. Education No. 3.)
- References on consolidation of schools, p. 84-85.
- Tate, W. K. Suggested solutions for some rural school problems in South Carolina. Columbia, S. C., 1912. 43 p. 8°. (University of South Carolina. Bulletin No. 28. Part VI.)
- Reprinted from the 43d annual report of the State superintendent of education.
- Texas. State department of education. Consolidation of rural schools, school buildings and plans, and local taxation. Austin, Tex., Austin Printing Co., 1912. 67 p., illus., plans. 8°. (Bulletin No. 15.)
- Washington. Department of education. Consolidation of rural schools and transportation of pupils. Olympia, Wash., E. L. Boardman, public printer, 1911. 120 p., illus. 8°. (Bulletin No. 7.)
- Wisconsin. Department of education. Preliminary report of the Committee of Fifteen appointed by the State superintendent of public instruction to investigate educational needs and conditions in Wisconsin. [Madison? Wis., 1912?] 30 p. 8°.
- Issued by C. P. Cary, State superintendent.
- Training school for public service. Preliminary report on conditions and needs of rural schools in Wisconsin. Results of field study reported to the Wisconsin State board of public affairs. [n. p.] 1912. 92 p. 8°.
- The Training School for public service is maintained by the New York bureau of municipal research. The findings are based upon a general examination of conditions in 27 counties and a detailed investigation of 131 schools in 13 counties.

The following bulletins of the Bureau of Education pertain in whole or in part to rural education:

- No. 1, 1912. Course of study for rural teachers in nature study, elementary agriculture, sanitary science, and applied chemistry.
- No. 6, 1912. Agricultural education in secondary schools.
- No. 9, 1912. Country schools for city boys.
- No. 10, 1912. Bibliography of education in agriculture and home economics.
- No. 18, 1912. Teaching language through agriculture and domestic science.
- No. 20, 1912. The readjustment of a rural high school to the needs of the community.
- No. 21, 1912. Urban and rural common-school statistics.
- No. 28, 1912. Cultivating school grounds in Wake County, N. C.

PROGRESS IN SEVERAL STATES.

The following notes on the progress in various States were prepared from reports made by some of the special collaborators of the bureau.

Alabama.—A State supervisor of rural schools was appointed early in 1911. Two county rural supervisors, one in Marshall and one in Calhoun County, began work in September, 1911. They are expected to devote their entire time to supervision and are under the direction of the county superintendents. Their duties and those of similar supervisors in other Southern States who are beginning work this year are described more fully on page 192. Rural industrial supervisors for negro schools, paid from the Jeanes fund, are now employed in 17 counties. Further information regarding their work is given on page 193.

The new county-institute law, passed by the legislature in 1910, designed to improve the teachers in service, has gone into effect. Attendance on the part of every teacher in the State is compulsory. They must be present at an institute lasting one week or their certificates may be revoked. The institutes were held during the summer months, and it is the intention to continue to hold them at that time. Each county institute was in charge of the county superintendent. Two instructors, one of whom was a primary teacher, were assigned to each by the State department of education. The institute conductors were assembled in June at the capital of the State by the department of education and instructed regarding their duties. In some instances two and three counties united in holding an institute. The teachers paid from 50 cents to \$1 in fees. The money was used to pay local expenses and in part for the instructors. The balance required for the instructors was paid by the State department.

Another law passed by the 1910 legislature, providing State aid for school libraries, is now in operation. Under those provisions 451 school libraries have already been established. The law pro-

vides that the school district, the county, and the State shall each contribute \$10. The district and the county may contribute more, and in several instances have done so. The money raised is expended for books, which must be taken from a list prepared by the State department of education. Only "rural towns and village schools" may participate in this State fund, and it is not available "to any school located in a town or city of more than 1,000 population." The books are not for the use of the pupils only, but are also for the use of the entire community.

Colorado.—Interest in the rural-school problem is evidenced by the establishment of a special course for rural teachers in the State Teachers' College at Greeley and a department of rural schools in the State Agricultural College at Fort Collins. Both of these institutions are now attempting to give a training fitting primarily for the school in the open country. A marked activity in consolidating rural schools has been shown and several new consolidated schools have been built.

Connecticut.—About 900 schools, located in 91 townships, are under the direct supervision of the State board of education. Approximately 500 of these are one-room schools. During the past year model one-room schools have been established in many townships. It is the intention of the State department to have one in every township. These model schools are to afford observation of good procedure to the other teachers, particularly to the untrained and the beginning teachers. In all townships under the State supervision teachers are required to visit schools designated by the local supervisors. Difficulty has been experienced in finding schools of observation which were wholly satisfactory. The State department decided, therefore, to select certain schools and make them as nearly ideal as possible and send the teachers to visit them. The buildings in which the model schools are held are all one-teacher buildings. They are typical of the one-teacher country school, but are sanitary, properly heated, ventilated, and lighted, and are equipped with such facilities for teaching as are possible in every country school. A good teacher has been placed in charge of each school. The visiting teacher has an opportunity, therefore, to see a properly built and well-arranged school building and good equipment as well as good teaching.

Georgia.—The rural schools have been making a steady gain during the year. The impetus given them by the boys' and girls' agricultural club work is particularly noticeable. Rural industrial supervisors for the schools for white children have been put in 10 or 12 counties. This has been made possible through the generosity of Mr. N. O. Nelson, of New Orleans and St. Louis. County supervisors

(see p. 193) have been engaged in 8 counties. The school fair movement has spread rapidly throughout the State, and exhibits have been shown consisting largely of the products of the corn, garden, canning, and sewing clubs. Three elementary school inspectors were created by the legislature two years ago. These inspectors work under the guidance and direction of the State school superintendent. Each has charge of a particular section of the State, and gives stimulation and instruction to school officials, to teachers in their institutes, and to the people in public addresses. The results of their work are now beginning to appear. Twenty-nine counties of the State have adopted county local-tax school systems, and many school districts within the counties have voted an additional tax upon themselves in support of the schools.

A new normal school at Valdosta, which will devote itself almost wholly to preparing teachers for rural schools, is under construction, and will open for students about the 1st of January, 1913. Mr. R. H. Powell, formerly State supervisor of rural schools, has been elected president.

A department of rural economics and sociology has been established by the board of trustees of the State Normal School at Athens, and Mr. E. C. Branson, formerly president of the institution, has been made head of the department. The department will continue the work begun by Mr. Branson several years ago in his classes in rural sociology and in "The Georgia Club," organized for the study of rural sociology. The courses offered by the department will be much more complete than it was possible to offer before.

Indiana.—An industrial commission appointed two years ago by the governor to investigate industrial conditions and needs is extending its study to cover rural life and education. The principal progress of the year has been in improved buildings, equipment, and sanitary arrangements and in the methods of supervision. Several counties now employ special supervisors for their rural schools, whose business it is to look after the specific work in the course of study and to advise and direct the teachers. The department of agriculture of Purdue University has begun a State-wide campaign in the organization of corn clubs for boys, tomato-raising and canning clubs for the girls, and potato clubs for both boys and girls. Eight counties are already organized. It is expected that before the close of the year the work will be inaugurated in every county.

Kentucky.—By an act of the legislature passed in June, 1912, rural supervisors have been appointed in many counties. About 70 are already engaged. Further information relative to these supervisors and their work and the law which authorized their appointment is given on page 206. The State normal schools are establishing courses of study to fit supervisors for these positions.

The rural school supervisor of the State has prepared and published for use in the schools a course of study which is complete and practical. It will do much toward standardizing the rural work. The high-school supervisor has prepared a manual and course of study for use of high schools. This contains outlines for work, equipment, and laboratory teaching, and much other information of value. It will probably do for high schools what the other course of study will do for elementary schools.

The School Improvement League of the State has established county school improvement leagues in approximately one-half of the counties. The work of the various leagues is beginning to show in increased cleanliness, better sanitation, and improved ornamentation.

The growth of the boys' corn clubs and girls' domestic-science instruction has been phenomenal. School fairs were held the past fall all over the State. Products raised by the boys and specimens of cooking, preserving, baking, and sewing done by the girls were on exhibition. The school fairs were made educational rallies and were attended by parents and other adults in large numbers. A part of the program at each fair includes addresses to the people upon general questions relating to improved educational facilities. Prof. Fred Mutchler, of the State Normal School at Bowling Green, was appointed State agent in charge of the boys' and girls' agricultural work.

The State department of education has published a bulletin upon school buildings, devoting much attention to the rural school. It is hoped through this to disseminate information which will help to house the country schools in buildings properly suited to school purposes. Model rural schools, called "demonstration schools," have been established by the State supervisor of rural schools. Information concerning them is given on page 191.

A movement for the eradication of illiteracy in the State was inaugurated by Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart, county superintendent of Rowan County, two years ago. Night schools for adults were held in almost every rural school in the county. Eagerness and enthusiasm were manifested by persons of all ages and classes. They became known as "moonlight schools," as sessions were held on the moonlight nights of the autumn months in order that the people might find their way over the rugged roads to the schoolhouses. The regular teachers contributed their services and taught the evening classes. They entered into the spirit of the enterprise very heartily and not only gave volunteer service in teaching, but campaigned their districts prior to the opening of the schools to explain the purposes of the movement and to invite attendance. In 45 schools there were no classes smaller than 10, and some were as large as 50.

Not only young men and women, but fathers and mothers and grandfathers and grandmothers were in attendance. Current events were correlated with reading, the reading test being a little newspaper prepared by the county superintendent especially for beginners. This saved the adults the humiliation of using a primer and gave them something of interest for the reading lesson. Classes in all the elementary subjects were established, reading, writing, composition, arithmetic, history, and geography proving most popular. Bible study was one of the most attractive subjects, especially to the old men and women who had passed their fifties and even sixties. It is worthy of note that these people, upon learning to read, turned first to the Bible to practice their new-found art. Some of the adults, after but two weeks' practice, learned to write a legible letter.

The result of the session of the first year proved far greater than had been anticipated. The schools were again opened in the fall of 1912, and 1,600 pupils, mostly adults, were in attendance. The movement has spread to several other counties.

A second State supervisor of rural schools was appointed during the year, who is to devote his attention to the schools for negroes. The establishment of this position and the work of the supervisor have resulted in increased activity among the negro schools. The colored women's clubs of the State have taken up the subject of rural education and have assisted in establishing 14 "parents' leagues." Many new buildings have been constructed and demonstration schools have been established in every county in the State where there is a sufficient colored population to justify their establishment.

Maine.—A campaign for the improvement of rural schools has been inaugurated by Hon. Payson Smith, State superintendent of public schools. He is urging the school superintendents throughout the State to place before the citizens of their own towns a definite statement of the needs of the schools and a plan for meeting them. Granges and other organizations interested in rural life have been urged to give special emphasis during the year to a discussion of rural education. The State superintendent asks that public sentiment be aroused and a sense of public responsibility created especially on the following points:

- (a) Better qualified and better paid teaching force.
- (b) Better buildings, especially in regard to heating, ventilation, and sanitary surroundings.
- (c) Larger school grounds.
- (d) Better equipment of books, material, and apparatus.
- (e) More careful supervision.
- (f) Better organized course of study.
- (g) More sympathetic support and interest from the community.

The movement has resulted in a State-wide discussion of the rural school which has already resulted in marked improvement.

Massachusetts.—Interest in the rural school problem is evinced by the State normal schools, which are developing their facilities for training teachers, especially for rural-school service. The Lowell Normal School has added to its training department rural schools in which its students may observe and practice under almost ideal conditions. Salem, North Adams, and Hyannis are also increasing their facilities for fitting rural teachers.

There is a widespread movement throughout the State for an extension of the activities of the schools through social gatherings, lecture courses, and night schools. School-improvement associations have been formed in many towns. Granges, women's clubs, and other organizations are manifesting a great interest in rural-school improvement and in the improvement of rural living conditions.

Michigan.—Under provisions of the recent act of the legislature permitting the adoption of the township as a unit of organization for the management of school affairs in the southern peninsula, four townships (to April, 1912) have given up their district system and adopted the township unit. The northern peninsula has been organized on the township basis for several years.

Mississippi.—Recent progress in rural education has taken place along several lines. The interest in the proper distribution of school buildings has been very marked. A movement to consolidate many of the one-teacher schools and the transportation of their pupils at public expense is well underway. This has been due largely to the efforts of the State supervisor of rural schools. The legislature has authorized the expenditure of public money for the transportation of pupils living two miles or more from a consolidated school. In Harrison County, 16 schools have been consolidated into 7, with 6 transportation wagons. Covington County has now 4 schools taking care of the children that formerly attended 15. Experiments in consolidation were made in 1911 in Claiborne, Lauderdale, Wayne, Alcorn, Madison, Holmes, and Leake Counties. The law was found to be inadequate for the best development of the schools. The legislature in 1912 passed an act providing for a tax levy in the district of a consolidated school and giving the consolidated schools all the privileges of separate school districts. This will make rapid development possible.

The consolidation of schools has been a potent factor in the movement for good roads. The State has recently issued \$5,000,000 in bonds for the purpose of assisting in road building. Counties in which good roads are to be built with the assistance of the State are

raising from \$100,000 to \$400,000 each. With the good roads which will result in the next few years, the number of consolidated schools will greatly increase.

The annual sum of \$25,000 has been added to the State appropriation in support of county agricultural high schools. There are now 27 of these schools. They are in reality more than the name implies; they are county high schools, with agriculture and household science as the chief vocational elements in the course of study. Their work is yet in an unformed state, but they are becoming schools for country life, taking leadership in making country homes more attractive, in making farming more attractive, and in developing an efficient education.

A State normal school was opened in September, 1912, at Hattiesburg. The school has large and suitable buildings, costing \$260,000, and 110 acres of land donated by the city of Hattiesburg. It will devote its energies to preparing teachers especially for rural schools.

The school improvement association movement has grown rapidly in the past year. The State department in addition to a supervisor of rural schools has a State organizer of school improvement associations. About 60 counties have now county associations and local associations. The State organizer has issued bulletins suggesting to the country teachers how local organizations may be formed, and giving directions for holding general meetings. Several special-day programs have been arranged, namely: Clean-up and beautify day, in October; health day, in November; library day, in December; arbor day, in January; club day, in February; field day, in March. The State organizer is known officially as the supervisor of school improvement. This officer has charge of the girls' tomato clubs, as well as of the school improvement work.

A State supervisor of corn clubs has succeeded in establishing clubs in all parts of the State. Corn raised by these boys has been exhibited at the county and State fairs. As the club work is done through the school, it has created a stimulus to progress in all the school work. The average yield of corn in the State has increased in two years from 14½ bushels to 19 bushels per acre. It seems evident that the boys' corn clubs have figured to some extent in this increase, as several of their members have produced over 200 bushels to the acre and few less than 100.

Another important work of the State closely related to the rural-school problem is the State-wide health campaign, which has made significant advance during the year. This has been carried on by the State health department. Information has been disseminated on the principles of sanitation, and particularly as to the sources and prevention of tuberculosis and hookworm disease. Much of this

work has been done through the school, and the school-improvement associations have furnished a definite organization through which the sanitary officials could act.

Missouri.—A wider interest in rural education and rural life has resulted from several causes. Among these has been a survey made of the three counties in the northern part of the State by the rural-school department of the Kirksville Normal School in conjunction with the country-church and country-life department of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions. The interest has been manifested by holding rural-life conferences, and a recommendation passed by the Missouri State Teachers' Association for a State rural-life commission to be established by legal enactment.

Several acts of the legislature of 1910 are now bearing fruit. State aid is distributed partly upon the number of teachers employed and partly upon the aggregate attendance. This has resulted in more teachers, better average daily attendance, and longer annual session. A sliding scale for teachers' certificates has been provided, under which no one will be permitted to teach in the schools of the State after 1918 who has not completed a full four-year high-school course or its equivalent. Transportation of children at public expense has been authorized, and the movement for consolidation of schools has thereby received impetus. The compulsory attendance laws were strengthened, increasing the school enrollment, particularly in the rural schools.

The State department of education has now a rural-school inspector, who is very actively engaged in assisting the 114 county superintendents in their work. A bill now before the legislature provides for the appointment of five assistant State inspectors. The State university has established a department of rural education. The normal schools offer special course for the preparation of rural teachers, containing subjects of especial value to the teacher in the country school. Summer schools for teachers have been held by all the State educational institutions and by several private colleges. During the past year 7,000 teachers have attended these schools. Boys' and girls' agricultural courses and girls' household economics clubs have spread rapidly throughout the State and are doing much to vitalize the work of the rural schools.

North Carolina.—Assistant county superintendents have been appointed in several counties. Well-trained and well-qualified women have been selected as a rule. The law makes no direct provision for such supervision, but it is probable that the legislature will be asked to authorize it at the next session.

All State educational institutions held summer schools for teacher training during the past summer. This was in accordance with the provision of the act of the legislature passed at the recent session.

Fully 1,000 teachers availed themselves of the opportunity for summer training. Increased interest and special emphasis have been placed upon the teachers' institutes held biennially in the several counties of the State. They have been made more effective and definite by the action of the State superintendent of public instruction, who called the corps of institute instructors together before they began their duties and gave them definite and specific instructions as to what was expected of them during their two weeks' work with the teachers.

Craven County has taken advantage of a provision of the school law passed by the legislature of 1911 permitting the organization of a county farm-life school. A principal has been selected and the school will open its doors next year. A special committee, including the State superintendent, the county superintendent, and members of the county board of education, visited several agricultural schools in various States for the purpose of getting information concerning the possibility of a farm-life school. It is desired to establish in the county a school which will serve all classes.

As a result of the deliberations of several educational meetings held in the State, the legislature of 1913 will be asked to make several amendments and additions to the present school law. Those concerning primarily the rural schools are: First, a uniform system of examination for the certification of teachers of the State, requiring as a minimum qualification graduation from a four-year high school or its equivalent; second, increasing the minimum term from four to six months; third, in order that funds may be available for this purpose, a special tax of 5 cents on each \$100 worth of property.

South Carolina.—An experimental school has been established in connection with the Winthrop Normal and Industrial College at Rock Hill, under the direction of the normal school and the State supervisor of rural schools. The school is attempting to develop a program of studies which may be used in the ordinary country school by a teacher of average ability, training, and experience. A building on one corner of the Winthrop College campus, separated by a grove from the other college buildings, was slightly remodeled and utilized for the school. The building contains a schoolroom, a kitchen, and a shop. The schoolroom is supplied with a large table about which the children may sit for study and recitations, a bookcase with more than 100 books adapted to the primary grades, and a plentiful supply of blackboard. The kitchen is furnished with a good range and cooking utensils. The shop is supplied with three workbenches and with simple carpenter tools. Running the entire length of the school building is a broad piazza. This piazza is supplied with a large table and chairs and with a blackboard, and much of the school work is done on it. A school garden of three-quarters

of an acre adjoins the school building and the school is supplied with enough hoes, rakes, and other garden tools to allow all the children to work at one time. The yard surrounding the building is filled with fruit trees and blooming shrubs.

The object of the experiment is to develop a course of study based on rural activities. The usual conventional work of the ordinary school is pushed into the background and in a certain way becomes incidental to the activities of the kitchen, garden, and shop. The conventional work is based upon or grouped about these activities. Some work has to be done in books, but as far as possible this is connected closely with the kitchen, garden, and shop activities of the child. The children work in groups; an older pupil works with several younger ones. He not only does his work in such a way that the younger ones use it as a model, but he helps them to do theirs. In this way he gets a double benefit from the lesson. All of the pupils are engaged in the same line of work—boys and girls, from the youngest to the oldest. The older pupils go into more elaborate detail than the younger ones. One illustration will serve to make the plan a little clearer. To each child is assigned a plat in the garden, and he is taught how to prepare the seed bed, to fertilize the soil, and to plant the seed. In laying out the plat he is taught how to use the foot and yard measure and to make simple measurements. Each child draws a plan of his garden. The youngest ones draw simple rectangles, the older ones draw to a scale, and the oldest draw to a scale and in addition indicate the dimensions and directions on their plans.

Among other things, the potato is planted. Before planting the children gather around the table to study the potato. One is given to each child. They describe the potato and as they do so the words developed are written on the blackboard. These later in the day form the basis for a language lesson and a spelling lesson. They all make a drawing of the potato. The youngest pupils model it in clay. They discuss together how the ground was prepared for planting and how the potato should be planted. They then plant their seed. Each child keeps a notebook in which he describes as far as he is able what he has done. The older pupils and the more advanced are, of course, expected to have notebooks much more complete than the younger pupils. The more advanced pupils learn something of the history and uses of the potato from books. All the pupils, boys and girls, learn how to cook the potato, and as a part of the same lesson on potatoes they go to the kitchen and actually cook them. They are cooked in several different ways by different pupils. When cooked the pupils eat them as a part of their lunch. At lunch they discuss, under the guidance of the teacher, the various uses of the potato.

The potato becomes the basis for the work in reading, composition, language, and spelling while it is studied. The activities of the pupils in cultivating and harvesting their potatoes form a subject for part of the reading and composition work during the entire season.

Tennessee.—Special activity has occurred during the past year in the consolidation of weak, inefficient schools into centralized graded schools. Thirty-seven county superintendents report the abandonment of 149 old schools and the establishment of 65 consolidated ones. The average cost of the new buildings was \$2,023. The 65 schools contain approximately 200 rooms and serve an area on the average of 14 square miles each. They all have at least eight years' work. An increase in the enrollment of 2,339 is noted over the enrollment in the old schools.

The State department of education has issued a bulletin on consolidation of schools and transportation of pupils. This has greatly increased the interest in this movement, and within the next year many new consolidated schools will be established.

Four counties in Tennessee have in the past year employed county school supervisors to assist the county superintendent in supervising the rural schools. The question of such officers is under consideration in several other counties, and it is expected that other supervisors will be employed before the close of the year.

The efficiency of the persons obtained for county superintendents has been greatly improved by the results of an act passed by the last legislature providing that county superintendents should receive a portion of their salaries from the State, the maximum amount paid by the State to a county being \$350. During the past year nearly \$30,000 has been added to the salaries of the county superintendents by the State.

Two years ago the State began to assist local communities in establishing rural-school libraries by paying one-half as much as was raised by the community up to \$40. In this way 1,140 school libraries have been established. In these there are approximately 100,000 volumes. School improvement associations have been organized in practically every county in the State. Boys' corn clubs and girls' tomato clubs have been organized in 20 counties.

The State superintendent has inaugurated a campaign against illiteracy which is attracting considerable attention and is doing much good wherever county authorities engage earnestly in the work. The plan includes night schools in schoolhouses, churches, and elsewhere, taught by school-teachers, ministers, and any other competent persons who volunteer their services.

Washington.—The standard for the certification of teachers is constantly raised, with the result that the teachers are preparing

themselves more fully for their work. Of the 8,500 teachers employed, 2,400 were enrolled in summer schools the past summer. On account of the comparatively large salaries paid in the rural and semirural schools, the State draws a great many teachers from eastern States, including a large number of college and normal-school graduates.

In some districts of the State cottages have been built in the past for the teachers. It is proposed to ask the legislature to enact a law authorizing school authorities to erect such cottages whenever they see fit. The attorney general has recently given opinion that the school boards have no such authority at the present time.

About one-third of the counties of the State maintain circulating libraries, which send out books to all the schools within their jurisdiction.

The Bellingham, Ellensburg, and Cheney State Normal Schools all have model rural schools for observation and training. These schools are used for demonstration purposes for the people of the county, as well as for training schools. The Cheney Normal School has model schools in Lincoln, Adams, Stevens, and Pend Oreille Counties. They are used by the county superintendents as demonstration schools for the other teachers to visit and as an experimental school for the county superintendent. They are under the direction and supervision of the rural school department of the normal school. In each of them last year a lecture course was maintained. These courses were self-supporting and were given to illustrate what can be done in any community without outside help. Regular social gatherings, literary entertainments, plays, etc., were held to demonstrate what the rural school may do for the social life of its patrons.

A National Country Life Congress was held at Spokane in November, 1911. This congress convened for a week, and each day special programs on different phases of farm life were given. A model country school, with all modern furnishing and equipment, was exhibited, and on country school day the teacher and pupils from the model rural school at the Cheney State Normal were there, and school was conducted as in its own building. Considerable interest was created in rural education by this means.

West Virginia.—Within the past year 12 rural high schools have been established in the State. Most of them began with a two-year course, but all are extending their work when their students are ready for more advanced courses. There are now 125 high schools in the State, of which 75 are rural. A new course of study for the high schools has been provided by the State board of education, as required by law. It includes a course of agriculture covering from one to four years.

In 1911 a law was passed by the legislature directing the State department to class the high schools of the State for the purpose of distributing the State funds. The benefits resulting from this law have exceeded expectations and have more than justified the expenditure of the money appropriated. First, it has put into effect a definition for the term "high school" for the State. Before the enactment of the law there were schools in the State known locally as high schools, but in which no work of high-school grade was done. Second, it has aided in the establishment and development of new high schools. Third, it has created a desire on the part of the authorities and communities for improvement in their high schools, in order that they might be ranked as high as possible. Fourth, it has resulted in the employment of additional teachers and has established a uniform standard of scholastic training for high-school teachers. Fifth, it has induced many high-school teachers to prepare themselves more thoroughly for their work. Sixth, it has raised the standard of compensation for high-school teachers. Seventh, it has resulted in the expenditure of \$43,921 within the year for apparatus and other high-school equipment.

The act requires that high schools be divided into three classes, depending upon the number of years' work, the number of properly qualified teachers employed, and the number of weeks in which the school is in session during the year. To the high schools in the first class \$800 is provided from the State funds; to those in the second class, \$600; to those in the third class, \$400.

The most effective movement in the State for the improvement of the rural schools is that for district supervision. The number of district superintendents in 1912 increased from 36 to 58. Now 17 per cent of the rural districts have district supervisors, and 30 per cent of the rural teachers of the State are under their supervision. These superintendents are doing a very important work. In 1911-12 the attendance in the districts under the 36 superintendents then engaged was greater by 14 per cent than the attendance in the State as a whole. One superintendent was able in a single year to bring up the average daily attendance from 73 per cent to 94-per cent. By personal supervision of the schools, by monthly or bimonthly teachers' meetings, and by private consultation with the teachers they have improved very greatly the quality of the work of the schools.

Beginning in 1911 the State department of education attempted to standardize both the rural school buildings and the school by means of score cards. The State department furnishes the cards. The county superintendents inspect the buildings and schools and indicate on the score cards their estimation of the schools. The score includes 100 points. The greatest possible number of points

that may be awarded on each of the various parts of the school are as follows: Ground, 15 points; the building, 10; light and ventilation, 8; decorations, 8; water supply, 10; equipment, 22; the teacher, 27. Each one of these topics is subdivided into from 3 to 12 sub-topics, the maximum number of points assignable to each being indicated on the card.

A revised course of study has just been prepared by the board of education, with the assistance and advice of a special committee of five of the leading educators of the State. The boys' and girls' corn club work has spread rapidly within the year. There are about 6,000 now enrolled. This work will be assisted to some extent by the appointment of the county farm demonstration agents, who are already engaged in six counties.

The State normal school at Fairmont has just established a model rural school for observation purposes. The building is an ordinary country school, 1 mile from the car line and 4 miles from the normal school. It has been repaired, remodeled, and made modern in every way. A competent teacher is in charge of it. The students of the normal school preparing for rural work will be required to visit it for observation purposes. The Glenville and Shepherdstown Normal Schools are offering courses in rural sociology.

Wisconsin.—The annual school board conventions required by law to be held each year by the county superintendents since 1904 have devoted their attention the past two years principally to a study of the general rural-school situation. As a result great interest has been aroused in rural-school improvement, and particularly in the relation of the home to the school and the method of interesting the people in education. A committee, known as the committee of fifteen, has been at work during the year studying Wisconsin educational conditions. Their report is reviewed elsewhere in this chapter. A State board of public affairs, created by the legislature of 1910, has been investigating the condition of the rural schools of the State. They have had the expert assistance of the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City. Mention of their report is also made elsewhere in this chapter.

During the year two new county training schools have been established, making 27 in all. The new schools are located in Outagamie and Taylor Counties. A training department for rural teachers has been added to the Stevens Point Normal School, so that there are now departments for country-school teachers in five State normal schools, namely, La Crosse, Oshkosh, River Falls, Stevens Point, and Whitewater.

CHAPTER VI.

ROMAN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS.

By HERBERT F. WRIGHT,
Instructor, Catholic University of America.

The following report of the schools maintained by the Roman Catholic Church in the United States has been compiled from authoritative Catholic publications, principally from those of the Catholic Educational Association and from the Official Directory, published by P. J. Kenedy & Sons, of New York. This bureau has made no attempt during the year to collect first-hand data on parochial schools of any denomination, except as they are included in the general statistics on private schools which are reported by the State departments of education. The bureau does collect annually from the Catholic colleges data which are published in the chapter on universities and colleges in the United States in the second volume of the annual report. Bulletin, 1912, No. 22, "Public and Private High Schools," contains under the heading of private high schools and academies a list of such institutions, with data regarding the number of years in their courses, the number of teachers, the enrollment, etc. The Catholic high schools and academies, as far as they reported to the bureau, are included in this list.

The figures in the Official Directory are furnished by the diocesan authorities to the publishers. In a few instances the figures of enrollment are identical for 1911 and 1912, indicating that data for 1912 were not obtained, and the 1911 figures were used. In some other cases the figures would appear to be estimated rather than reported from actual records. The estimates are undoubtedly close; so that the totals are probably as nearly accurate as they can be made.

It was not found possible in this chapter to report the data by States. The unit of organization of the Catholic parochial school system is the diocese. While in most instances the diocese is a State or a part of a State, in several cases the diocese lies partly in each of two adjoining States.

The highest authority within the diocese in school affairs as in all ecclesiastical affairs is the bishop. Therefore, in order that the system of administration of the parochial schools may be understood,

it is necessary to include here a brief statement of the organization for the management of all the affairs of the church.

The administration of the affairs of the Catholic Church in the United States is apportioned among 14 well-defined districts called "provinces." The province usually comprises a State or several States. In a few instances a State lies in two different provinces. For instance, the province of Milwaukee includes the entire State of Wisconsin and the northern part of the State of Michigan. Part of Florida is in the Baltimore province, the rest in the province of New Orleans. The provinces are presided over by archbishops, who in three instances are cardinals as well. The province takes its name usually from the city in which the residence of the presiding officer is located. The States included in the several provinces are given in Table 2 (pp. 239-241).

The province is divided into several districts, called dioceses, each presided over by a bishop. For instance, the province of Chicago contains five dioceses—Alton, Belleville, Chicago, Peoria, and Rockford. The 14 provinces include 99 dioceses. They are indicated also in Table 2. The archbishop is the bishop of one diocese in his province, as well as the presiding officer in meetings of the bishops of the province. His diocese is called the archdiocese of that province. The diocese, as well as the province, takes its name from the city in which its presiding officer resides, although its extent is by no means confined to the city's limits.¹ For example, the diocese of Salt Lake includes not only Salt Lake City, but also the entire State of Utah and the eastern part of the State of Nevada. One exception to the statements regarding the name of the province and diocese should be noted—the province of Oregon and the archdiocese of Oregon City. In this case the residence of the archbishop, which was formerly at Oregon City, has been changed to Portland.

* The diocese is again divided into districts, called parishes, in which there is a church and a resident pastor.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

The development of the Catholic school system had its seed in the individual parish school.

In the organization and administration of the parish school three elements of authority meet which are, practically speaking at least, sharply distinct—the diocese, the community, and the parish. Each has authority over the school; but, following the law of the division of labor, the rôle of each has gradually so shaped itself as to be confined chiefly to a special sphere. The diocesan authority, in the first place, exercises a general supervision over all the schools of the diocese comparable with that of the State superintendent over the public schools of the State; but besides this, the diocesan supervision extends

¹ See map in Cath. Encycl., XV, 178-179.

to individual schools also. The immediate religious superior, again, controls the actual carrying on of the work of the school, much after the manner of the public-school principal, while the higher religious superiors, controlling, as they do, the teachers as well as the teaching in a large number of schools, possess a practical power over the school which is comparable in some respects with that of the diocesan authority. The parish priest, finally, is the ordinary and immediate representative of the diocese in the management of the school. He is by right the school principal, but he does not usually exercise this right, except to a limited extent. He carefully supervises the teaching of Christian doctrine, if he does not teach the class himself or have his assistant do so. The measure of actual school responsibility which the pastor has to bear is not small, however, for upon his shoulders falls the full burden of providing for the material and moral support of the school.¹

DIOCESAN SCHOOL BOARDS.

In every diocese, as has been said, the bishop is the head of the school system. As the work of the bishop increases with the multiplication of churches and of schools, it has been the tendency in the various dioceses for the bishops to intrust in large measure the management of the school affairs to a diocesan school board or to several division boards appointed by the bishops. Fifty-eight dioceses now have such boards. These dioceses are given in Table 1.

The table contains the name of the governing board of educational affairs in each diocese, and in parentheses the number of members constituting the board. The dioceses are arranged alphabetically by provinces. The titles of these governing boards vary. In 46 dioceses they are called "school boards" or "diocesan school boards"; in 5 dioceses, "examiners of schools"; in 2 dioceses (Marquette and Superior), "school commissions"; in 2 dioceses (Portland and Fall River), "school visitors"; in 1 diocese (New Orleans), "Catholic board of education"; and in 1 diocese (Monterey-Los Angeles), "inspectors of diocesan schools." The duties of these boards, however, are practically the same, namely, visiting and examining the parochial schools of the diocese and exercising a general control and supervision over them and their work.

In 11 dioceses (Baltimore, Richmond, Wheeling, Rockford, Detroit, Davenport, Omaha, Brooklyn, New York, Syracuse, and Trenton) the school boards have been divided, for convenience of management, into two or more district boards. The division is made by counties in the dioceses of New York and Brooklyn, but in the other dioceses it follows no definite civil unit. In addition to the central governing board, 6 dioceses (Trenton, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, Providence, Detroit, and Omaha) have examiners of teachers; 1 diocese (Leavenworth), a diocesan high-school board; 1 diocese (Provi-

¹ Burns: *Growth and Development of the Catholic School System in the United States*, 1912, pp. 197, 198.

dence), examiners of schools. The governing board of the diocese of Nashville is called "examiners of teachers and diocesan school board." In the diocese of Omaha the chairmen of six local boards are ex officio members of the diocesan school board. All the boards take their members from the priesthood, except the Catholic board of education of the archdiocese of New Orleans, which is composed of 11 priests and 5 laymen. In all, there are 100 school boards distributed among 58 dioceses, varying in membership from 2 to 25 members.

PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISION.

The same table contains the names and titles of the professional supervising officers of diocesan schools, where such officers are employed. There are 26 of these, distributed among 22 dioceses. The archdioceses of Philadelphia and New York and the dioceses of Buffalo and Springfield each employ an assistant supervising officer. The titles of the supervisors vary. In 5 dioceses they are called superintendents; in 7, superintendents of schools; in 3, superintendents of parochial schools; in 3, inspectors of schools; in 2, supervisors of schools; and in 2 others, diocesan school visitors and school examiners, respectively. Though their titles vary, their duties are practically the same. They are priests trained in the principles and practices of education and experienced in school affairs. They devote practically their entire time to the duties of these positions, which do not differ materially from the duties of the supervisor in the public-school system.

It will be noticed from the table that in 6 dioceses (Boston, Hartford, Springfield, Dallas, Erie, and Fargo) there are supervisors but no school boards, the supervisors working under the immediate direction of the bishop. In 16 dioceses the supervisors work in conjunction with school boards, in large measure as the executive officers of the boards. Annual reports are published by the superintendents of parochial schools of the archdioceses of Philadelphia, St. Louis, and New York, and by the superintendents of the dioceses of Pittsburgh and Newark.

This system of a central board of control and a professional superintendent of instruction seems destined to be the norm of diocesan educational government, although 42 dioceses still have the simple school-board system and 35 dioceses are without any formal educational organization. Most of the latter, however, either are newly formed, and therefore not completely organized, or are dioceses containing few parochial schools. As indicated in Table 2, the number of parochial schools in 29 of these dioceses is 50 or less; in 21 it is 25 or less; and 9 of these dioceses have 10 parochial schools or less.

SUMMARY.

Dioceses having school board and superintendent-----	16
Dioceses having school board alone-----	42
Dioceses having superintendent alone-----	6
Total dioceses with supervision-----	64
Dioceses without formal supervision expressed-----	35
Total number of dioceses-----	99

THE EXTENT OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Table 2 gives data, by dioceses, indicating the number of Catholic schools and the number of children enrolled. The figures are taken from the 1912 and 1913 Official Catholic Directories. They are the school data for the fall of 1911 and 1912, respectively.

Column 1 gives the names of the 14 provinces; it also gives the States included in each province. Column 2 gives alphabetically the dioceses in each province, the archdiocese being designated by an asterisk. Since 1911 no new provinces have been made, but a new diocese has been formed by the division of the diocese of Lincoln into the diocese of Lincoln and the diocese of Kearney, making a total of 99 dioceses in 1912, as against 98 for 1911.

Seminaries.—Columns 3 and 5 give the number of seminaries in the years 1911 and 1912, respectively; columns 4 and 6 the number of students attending the seminaries. The term "seminary" as used here is applied only to institutions whose sole purpose is to train young men for the priesthood. The length of the course of study pursued in these institutions is at least 6 years. It will be seen that there is an increase of 2 in the total number of seminaries, new institutions having been established in the dioceses of Galveston and Altoona, making the total number 85. There are now two or more seminaries in each of 19 dioceses and one in each of 22, making 41 dioceses which have seminaries. The number of students in these institutions has increased by 163, so that the total number is 6,169, the average attendance being 72 per institution.

Colleges and academies.—Under the heading "colleges and academies" is given the number of such institutions for boys and for girls. Both standard colleges and institutions doing junior college and secondary school work are included. Parish high schools, however, are not included. No data are given by the Official Directory to show the number of colleges and academies separately, nor the enrollment either separately or combined. Information concerning the colleges may be obtained, however, in the chapter on universities and colleges in Volume II of the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education. Information concerning the academies may

be obtained from Bulletin, 1912, No. 22, Public and Private High Schools and Academies. It may be noted that there are colleges and academies for boys located in 77 dioceses and for girls in 95 dioceses.

Parochial schools.—Columns 11 and 13 contain the number of parishes maintaining parochial schools and the number of pupils attending them, respectively, for the year 1911; columns 12 and 14 contain the corresponding figures for the year 1912. Under parochial schools are included all schools, either elementary or high, which are supported by the individual parishes of the various dioceses for the children of the parishes. The figures show an increase of 137 during the past year in the number of parishes maintaining schools and an increase of 26,975 in the number of pupils in these schools.

Orphan asylums.—The number of orphan asylums and the number of inmates are included in the table, since practically all of them maintain schools for their inmates. Many of the children are below the ordinary school age, probably one-fourth or one-third of the total number, but the great majority are receiving instruction in regular school subjects. The table shows 289 asylums in 1911 with 47,111 inmates, and 288 in 1912 with 47,415 inmates. There has been a decrease of 1 in the number of asylums, but an increase of 304 in the total number of orphans. The diocese of Oklahoma failed to report the number of orphans in 1911, but reports 40 in 1912. The increase is therefore somewhat less than 304, but is greater than 264. The diocese of Crookston, with 1 asylum in 1911 and 2 in 1912, has failed to report the number of orphans in both years. The totals show the average number of orphans in orphan asylums in 1911 to be 163 per asylum, while in 1912 it was over 164.4 per asylum, an increase of nearly 1.5 per asylum.

Grand totals.—Columns 19 and 20 contain the grand totals of children in or attending Catholic institutions. This includes not only the attendance of the parochial schools and orphan asylums, but also the attendance of the colleges and academies for boys and girls, for both of which no separate totals have been given. There are in 1912 approximately 1,593,316 children in Catholic institutions, an increase of 53,267 over the figures for the previous year.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

Included in this grand total of children in Catholic institutions are those in special institutions for Indians, for negroes, and for the deaf, dumb, and blind. The total number of Indian schools is 80, of which 55 are boarding schools and 25 are day schools. They are located in 22 different dioceses. The total number of Indian children attending these schools is 4,765.

There are several Catholic sisterhoods whose members devote themselves exclusively to the education of the negro youth, two of them taking their members from the colored race. The larger of these, the

Oblate Sisters of Providence, founded in 1825 in Baltimore, now numbers 135. The other, the Congregation of the Holy Family, founded in 1842 in New Orleans, now numbers 111 members, and its schools are attended by 1,300 pupils. The total number of negro schools at the present time is 150, with an enrollment of 13,393. The schools are in 30 dioceses.

Catholic schools for the deaf and dumb in the United States number 14, with an enrollment of 1,270 pupils. Most of the schools are in charge of religious communities of women and are in 11 dioceses, as follows:

Dioceses.	Schools.	Enroll- ment.
Baltimore.....	1	30
Boston.....	1	144
Chicago.....	1	71
Milwaukee.....	1	91
New Orleans.....	1	43
New York.....	3	432
Philadelphia.....	1	100
St. Louis.....	2	90
San Francisco.....	1	31
Buffalo.....	1	173
Pittsburgh.....	1	60
Total (11 dioceses).....	14	1,270

In the diocese of Detroit and archdiocese of Milwaukee there are schools for the feeble-minded, with an enrollment of 32 and 72, respectively. The archdiocese of New York and the diocese of Newark have institutes for the instruction of the blind. The exact enrollment in the former is not given in the directory. In the latter it is 104.

Summary.

	Schools.	Enroll- ment.	Dioceses having such schools.
Indians.....	80	4,765	22
Negroes.....	150	13,393	30
Deaf and dumb.....	14	1,270	11
Feeble-minded.....	2	104	2
Blind.....	2	2

THE HIGH-SCHOOL MOVEMENT.

The establishment of high schools as a part of the parochial school system has been rapid during the past few years. It has been a natural development, brought about by a demand for more advanced work from pupils completing the grades already provided. It has been accomplished by gradually increasing the number of grades in the school until the course covered the secondary curriculum. The grades doing secondary work have become high schools or high-school

departments. In many instances, however, elementary schools are still giving one or two years of secondary subjects without definitely indicating it as high-school work.

A study of the extent of Catholic secondary education in the United States, exclusive of the preparatory departments of colleges, has recently been made by a committee of the Catholic Education Association. In January, 1911, this committee sent an inquiry to all schools reported in the Official Directory as having six or more teachers. It was felt that a school with fewer teachers was not likely to have more than the eight elementary grades. The list contained 1,474 schools. Inasmuch as the primary purpose was to ascertain as far as possible the strength of the high-school movement in so far as this was an outgrowth of, or at least connected with, the parish schools, preparatory departments of colleges and academies and schools for girls only were excluded from the inquiry.

Of the 1,474 schools addressed, 886 replied, and 295, or 33 per cent, reported high-school grades. If this ratio would hold for the 588 schools that did not reply there would be approximately 485 with high-school grades, or one-third of the total number. It is not certain that this ratio would hold, but it is certain that many with high schools did not report. Thus in the archdiocese of Cincinnati the latest report of the superintendent of parochial schools shows that 29 of the parish schools have high-school grades, while only 8 of these answered the inquiry of the committee.

Some of the most interesting data collected, taken from the report of the committee, are given below:¹

Complete and incomplete high schools.—The total number of boys and girls doing work above the elementary grades in these 295 high schools is 14,062. The number of boys is 7,902. One-half of the high schools have four grades. Of the remaining half, 64 have three grades, 57 have two grades, and 27 have only one grade.

It is plain that our growing system of high schools is passing through a stage of development which is easily discernible in studying the history of the public high schools. Many cities and towns were able at once to start full-fledged four-year public high schools. In many places, however, the public high school came into being only grade by grade. In fact, a condition analogous to that which we are considering exists even in the public high-school system of to-day. Of the 10,213 public high schools given in the report of the Bureau of Education for the year ending June, 1910, 3,792, or over one-third, had courses of only from one to three years.

Teachers.—Not quite so creditable a showing is made in the matter of teachers. The 148 schools with four grades average a little less than 4 teachers to the school. But these schools engage 174 teachers for part of the time; so that if the time given by these latter to high-school work were counted in there would probably be an average of 4 teachers to a school. For the 147 schools with less than four grades, having a total of 333 grades, there are only 214 teachers giving their whole time to high-school work, which means an aver-

¹ Catholic Educ. Assoc., Bull. No. 2, 1912. Rep. of committee on secondary education.

age of about 2 teachers to every three grades. There are, also, in these 147 schools 97 teachers who give part of their time to high-school work. Here, then, in the matter of the number of teachers there is undoubtedly a weak spot. Yet if comparison be made with the public schools the weakness may not appear so great, for if the 9,375 public high schools outside the cities of 8,000 population and over are considered the averages for this large number of schools—constituting, in fact, nine-tenths of all our public high schools—show a little less than 3 teachers to the school.

Nearly all the Catholic high schools are conducted by religious. Brothers teach in 68 schools and sisters in 220.

Connection with parish schools.—If we are to have a *system* of Catholic high schools, it is supremely important that these schools should fit in with our existing well-established systems of parish schools and colleges, and form a connecting bond between them. The statistics which have been gathered furnish some illuminative information here. Two hundred and fifty-two of these high schools are directly connected with only a single parish school, while only 15 of them are directly connected with several parish schools. No other fact, perhaps, so clearly reveals the inchoate character of this secondary school development. Nearly all these high schools are the offshoots of single parish schools. Even in towns and cities which boast of a number of large and well-equipped parish schools, with thousands of pupils, no attempt is made, as a rule, to build up a central high school with which all the existing parish schools would be made to fit in.

Academic standing.—But, it may be asked, are these new high schools competent to do the work of the preparatory departments? Our colleges have, generally speaking, added to their entrance requirements in recent years, and lengthened out their own preparatory curriculum to four years. The entrance requirements of our stronger colleges are, I think it may be said, quite as high and rigid as those of the big non-Catholic colleges and State universities. Can our high schools—even the strongest of them—measure up to the standard of such requirements?

A ready answer might be offered by pointing to the fact that 34 of these high schools are recognized by the board of regents of New York; 13 are connected with reputable non-Catholic colleges or State universities, 19 with Catholic colleges, and 9 with State normal schools. But the committee, realizing the importance of this question and its special interest to college men, has made a closer study of the matter. It has ascertained just what subjects are taught in each of these 295 high schools, with the number of semesters covered by each subject. The results formed one of the clearest evidences of the strength and permanency of this new high-school movement, as well as one of the most hopeful signs, in the judgment of the committee, for the future of Catholic higher education.

Out of the 295 schools investigated, 209 are found to have courses in Latin. How many of these, now, offer a curriculum of studies that is practically equivalent to the preparatory curriculum of our colleges? Or, in other words, how many of them can prepare boys to enter the freshman year of our colleges? By the term "practically equivalent" is meant the offering of such courses as would enable the boy to gain freshman standing, although he might, in some instances, be conditioned for lack of a year's study in some particular branch, such as a science or a modern language, algebra, or geometry. Again, it is necessary to distinguish between the colleges. Many of our colleges will not admit without Greek, and, in the case of these, comparatively few of the high schools could offer the equivalent of the preparatory department, for not many

of them teach Greek. But some of our stronger colleges do not require Greek, and permit the offering of the modern languages in its place. We will select one of these colleges, therefore, and, as a matter of convenience, it shall be the University of Notre Dame, as I am more familiar with the entrance requirements there, both as to quality and quantity.

Taking, then, the department of letters and the department of history and economics in Notre Dame University, which require, for entrance, 4 years of Latin, 4 of English, 3 of history, 3 of mathematics, 3 of modern languages, and 2 years of science, and bearing in mind the quality of the matter required under each of these subjects, I find that 101 of these high schools offer a curriculum that is practically equivalent to the preparatory curriculum or the entrance requirements of Notre Dame University in these two departments. Twenty-eight high schools, moreover, offer Greek, generally from two to three years. The total number of boys following high-school courses in these 101 schools is 3,541. There are, in addition, a considerable number of schools which offer a curriculum that would enable a boy to enter the freshman year in the general science course at Notre Dame, for which only two years of Latin are required.

It may be said, then, that fully one-half of our high schools which teach Latin are competent to prepare boys for the freshman year of those of our colleges that do not require Greek for entrance or for the non-Catholic colleges generally.

THE CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

This association, organized in 1904, is an outgrowth of the Association of Catholic Colleges, which was organized in Chicago April 12, 1899. The association has for its object the promotion of the general interest of Catholic education. Any person desiring to assist the association may become a member. It is composed of three departments—the seminary department, the college and university department, and the parish-school department.

The influence of the association upon the development of the Catholic school system is noteworthy. Burns, in his "Growth and Development of the Catholic School System in the United States," says:

The growth of the Catholic high-school movement, as well as the general effort that is being made to perfect the curriculum, the teaching, the organization, and administration of the parish schools, as has been described under these topics, shows that the Catholic school system in the United States has been, within recent years, undergoing a rapid development. The keynote of all these progressive movements appears to lie in the general recognition of the need of a greater unification of all Catholic educational forces. The present study of the growth and development of the school would therefore not be complete, within its professed scope, unless some account were given of the Catholic Educational Association, which, although not organically connected with the parish-school system, has unquestionably done much to foster the movement for unification. Indeed, the association is probably the chief factor in the present healthful stir which is apparent throughout the entire field of Catholic education.

The idea of a general union of Catholic educational societies was in the mind of Bishop Conaty and other members of the Catholic association when it was first suggested in the Chicago meeting, in 1900, that representatives of the diocesan school systems be invited to form an affiliated organization. The actual accomplishment of the projected union was due chiefly to the Right Rev. Mgr.

Dennis J. O'Connell, who made it one of his principal concerns on his assuming the rectorship of the Catholic University in 1903. (P. 237.)

The growth of the association and its influence are also indicated by the expansion of the departmental work. The college department has organized three sections for the more effective prosecution of its work in the special fields of languages and literature, mathematics and science, and philosophy and history; while in the parish-school department there is a section whose membership is made up of the diocesan superintendents of schools, and another which is devoted to the study and discussion of educational work among Catholic deaf-mutes. (P. 379.)

TABLE 1.—*Diocesan school boards and supervising officers.*

[Archdioceses are indicated by an asterisk (*).]

Ecclesiastical province.	Diocese or archdiocese.	Title of governing board and number of members.	Name and title of supervising officer.
Baltimore.....	*Baltimore.....	Examiners of teachers (2)..... Examiners of schools: For Baltimore (4)..... For Washington (3)..... For rural districts (4).....	Rev. Lawrence Brown, superintendent (Baltimore city).
	Richmond.....	Examiners of schools: Northern and western district (2). Southern and eastern district (2).	
	Wheeling.....	Examiners of schools: 3 district boards (3, 2, and 2).	
	Wilmington.....	School board (4).....	
Boston.....	*Boston.....		Rev. George A. Lyons, supervisor of schools.
	Burlington.....	School board (3).....	
	Fall River.....	Diocesan school visitors (2).....	
	Hartford.....		
Portland.....	Portland.....	School visitors (4).....	Rev. W. J. Fitzgerald, S. T. L. diocesan supervisor of schools.
	Providence.....	Examiners of teachers (3)..... Examiners of schools (9)..... School board (2).....	
	Springfield.....		
Chicago.....	Alton.....	Diocesan school board (6).....	Rev. John F. Conlin, P. R., diocesan school visitor; Rev. P. F. Doyle, assistant diocesan school visitor.
	Bellefonte.....	Diocesan school board (6).....	
	*Chicago.....	Diocesan school board (14).....	
	Rockford.....	School board: 3 district boards (6, 6, and 4).....	
Cincinnati.....	Columbus.....	School board (5).....	Rev. John J. Murphy, superintendent of schools.
	Detroit.....	Examiners of teachers (7)..... School board: 6 district boards (10, 10, 4, 3, 3, and 4).....	
	Fort Wayne.....	Diocesan school board (10).....	
	Grand Rapids.....	School board (4).....	
Dubuque.....	Louisville.....	School board (10).....	
	Nashville.....	Examiners of teachers and diocesan school board (6).....	
	Toledo.....	School board (8).....	
	Davenport.....	School board: 5 district boards (3, 3, 2, 2, and 2).....	
Milwaukee.....	Lincoln.....	Diocesan school board (5).....	
	Omaha.....	Diocesan examiners of teachers (2).....	
	Sioux City.....	Diocesan school board (11).....	
	Green Bay.....	6 local school boards.....	
New Orleans.....	La Crosse.....	Diocesan school board (6).....	
	Marquette.....	Diocesan school board (3).....	
	*Milwaukee.....	School board (7).....	
	Superior.....	School commission (6).....	
New Orleans.....	Dallas.....	Diocesan school board (8).....	
	Galveston.....	School commission (5).....	
	Little Rock.....	Diocesan school board (4).....	Rev. L. J. Harrington, school examiner.
	*New Orleans.....	Diocesan school board (6).....	Rev. Thomas V. Tobin, superintendent.
		Catholic board of education (16) (11 ecclesiastics, 5 laymen).	Rev. L. J. Kavanagh, superintendent.

TABLE 1.—*Diocesan school boards and supervising officers—Continued.*

Ecclesiastical province.	Diocese or archdiocese.	Title of governing board and number of members.	Name and title of diocesan supervising officer.
New York . . .	Albany . . .	Diocesan school examiners (9) . . .	Rev. William R. Charles, inspector of schools.
	Brooklyn . . .	Kings County school board (21) . . .	Rev. Joseph D. McKenna, inspector of schools.
	Buffalo . . .	Queens County school board (6) . . .	
		Nassau County school board (7) . . .	
		Suffolk County school board (7) . . .	
		Diocesan school board (8) . . .	
	Newark . . .	School board (15) . . .	
	*New York . . .	New York City and Yonkers school board (22) . . .	
		Westchester County school board (6) . . .	
		Orange and Rockland Counties school board (7) . . .	
		Ulster and Sullivan Counties school board (4) . . .	
		Putnam and Dutchess Counties school board (5) . . .	
		School board (7) . . .	
		School board (2) . . .	
		School board: 2 district boards (3 and 3) . . .	
		Examiners of teachers (4) . . .	
	Oregon . . .	Examiners of schools: 5 district boards (4, 4, 5, 5, and 4) . . .	Rev. William J. McConnell, superintendent of parochial schools.
		Diocesan school board (6) . . .	
Philadelphia . . .	Erie . . .		Rev. Edwin V. O'Hara, diocesan superintendent of schools.
	Harrisburg . . . *Philadelphia . . .	School board (10) . . .	Rev. John M. Gannon, D. D., D. C. L., superintendent of schools.
		Diocesan school board (11) . . .	
St. Louis . . .	Pittsburgh . . .	Examiners of school teachers (8) . . .	Right Rev. Mgr. P. R. McDevitt, superintendent of parochial schools; Rev. John E. Flood, assistant superintendent.
	Concordia . . .	Diocesan school board (25) . . .	Rev. H. C. Boyle, superintendent of schools.
	Kansas City . . .	Diocesan school board (4) . . .	
	Leavenworth . . .	Diocesan school board (6) . . .	
	*St. Louis . . .	Diocesan school board (9) . . .	
	St. Paul . . .	Diocesan high-school board (3) . . .	
San Francisco . . .	Wichita . . .	Diocesan school board (13) . . .	
	Bismarck . . .	Diocesan school board (4) . . .	
	Crookston . . .	Parochial school board (5) . . .	
	Duluth . . .	School board (6) . . .	
	Fargo . . .	School board (7) . . .	
Santa Fe . . .	St. Cloud . . .	Diocesan school board (6) . . .	
	*St. Paul . . .	School board (6) . . .	
	Sioux Falls . . .	Diocesan school board (6) . . .	
	Winona . . .	School board (7) . . .	
	Monterey-Los Angeles . . .	Inspectors of diocesan schools (8) . . .	
	Denver . . .	School board (5) . . .	

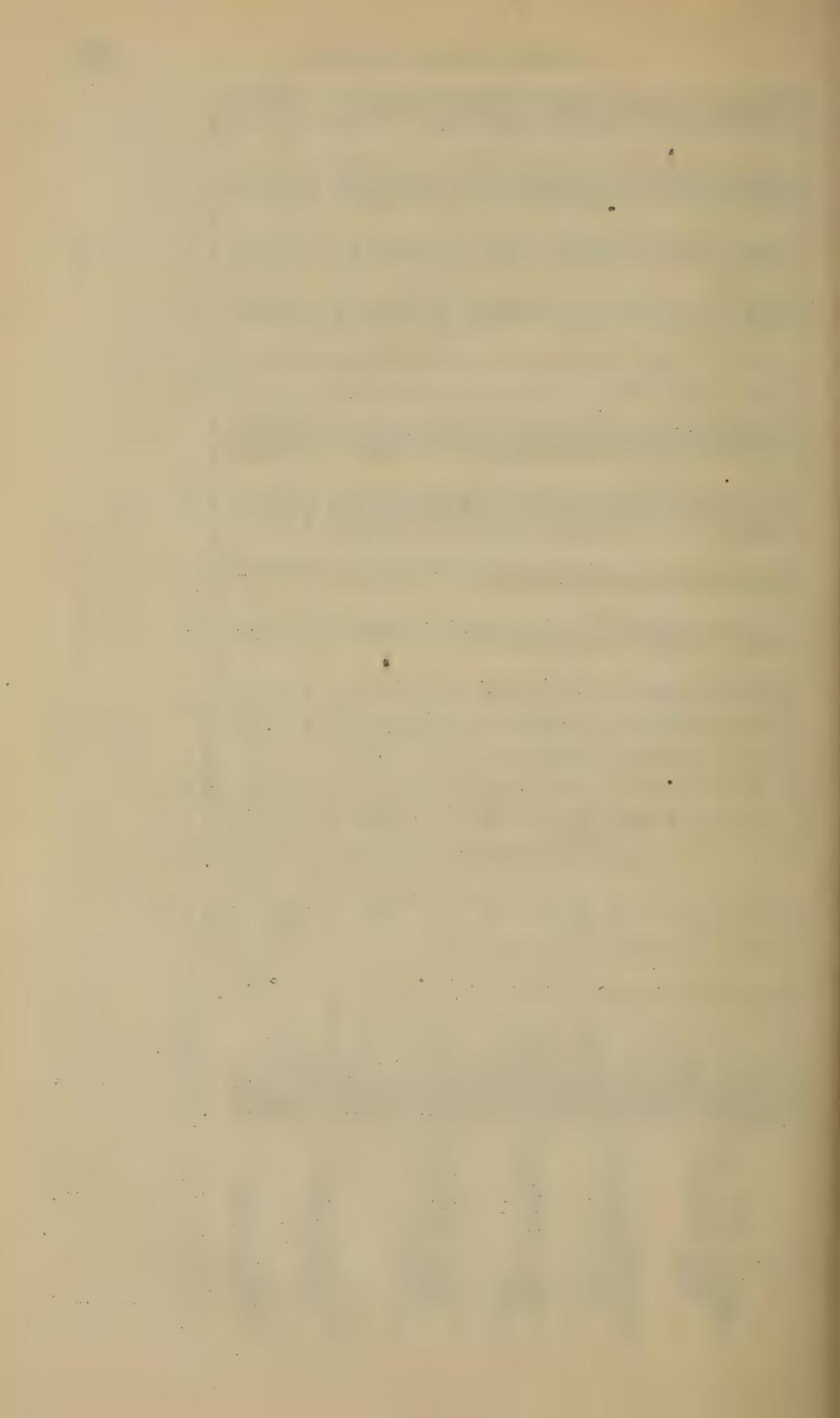
TABLE 2.—Enrollment in seminaries, colleges, and academies, and in parochial schools, in 1911 and 1912.

[Archdioceses indicated by asterisk (*).]

Ecclesiastical provinces.	Dioceses included in province.	Seminaries.		Colleges and academies.						Parishes with parochial schools.						Orphan asylums.				Children in Catholic institutions.	
		1911		For boys.			For girls.			Number.		Pupils.		Number.		Inmates.		1911		1912	
		Num- ber.	Stu- dents.	Num- ber.	Stu- dents.	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
Baltimore.	*Baltimore (S. C.).	12	985	12	1,003	10	10	26	26	84	84	25,580	24,000	10	10	1,654	1,650	36,415	36,129		
(Includes Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, eastern Florida.)	Charleston (S. C.).					10	10	5	5	9	9	743	880	10	10	1,135	1,135	5,400	5,400		
Richmond.						3	3	3	3	24	21	5,400	4,440	4	3	179	156	5,601	5,501		
St. Augustine.	1	4	1	4	3	3	3	12	12	18	18	1,856	1,856	1	1	35	35	2,030	2,034		
Savannah.						3	3	9	7	16	17	3,242	3,342	4	4	250	256	4,123	4,123		
Wheeling.						2	2	5	5	14	18	1,975	3,070	2	2	160	150	3,300	4,192		
Wilmington (Del.)						1	1	2	2	13	13	3,839	3,921	3	3	282	282	4,423	4,403		
North Carolina.						16	1	16	1	1	2	12	1,081	1,081	2	2	88	80	1,448	1,408	
Boston.		1	99	1	115	3	5	9	9	117	119	57,281	59,293	10	10	1,242	936	59,328	60,328		
(Includes Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut.)	Burlington.		1	7	1	9	4	1	6	20	20	5,688	6,224	20	20	220	237	5,840	6,244		
Fall River.						1	4	4	4	29	29	12,431	12,431	3	3	657	678	13,473	13,687		
Hartford.		3	235	3	254	1	1	7	5	81	81	34,375	34,514	3	2	485	507	36,355	36,387		
Manchester.						1	1	6	6	40	41	13,100	16,603	7	7	718	718	15,400	15,500		
Portland.						1	1	10	10	31	33	11,500	11,454	6	6	436	436	12,493	13,024		
Providence.						2	2	5	5	32	36	17,550	19,368	2	2	405	402	19,894	20,185		
Springfield.						2	2	4	4	64	65	27,451	27,451	5	5	797	716	29,000	29,200		
Alton.		2	152	2	26	2	2	5	5	66	66	9,198	9,317	2	2	145	145	10,787	10,787		
Bellefontaine.						1	1	2	2	76	77	9,688	10,000	6	6	197	176	10,024	10,450		
Chicago.		2	343	2	352	12	12	21	21	218	227	102,700	105,898	11,976	11,976	1,700	1,700	117,082	120,276		
Pearl River.						4	4	8	8	69	70	4,300	4,219	1	1	75	75	13,842	12,939		
Rockford.						1	1	1	1	26	26	28,351	28,596	1	1	82	95	4,476	4,388		
Cincinnati.		2	140	2	144	5	5	13	13	118	120	41,215	42,876	4	4	770	756	32,622	33,000		
(Includes Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, lower Michigan.)	Cleveland.		1	91	1	69	3	3	13	13	126	138	11,356	12,229	2	2	804	750	45,282	45,282	
Columbus.		1	177	1	168	1	1	3	3	55	57	11,356	12,229	38	38	307	320	11,838	13,632		
Covington.						2	2	2	2	8	8	86	7,084	3	3	233	233	10,024	9,458		
Fort Wayne.		2	404	2	787	3	5	2	2	82	87	31,258	32,779	5	5	823	942	34,134	35,777		
Grand Rapids.		3	39	3	42	2	2	13	13	86	87	15,884	16,689	2	2	219	221	17,103	17,612		
Indianapolis.		4	117	4	94	3	3	126	126	82	82	17,108	16,514	2	2	297	279	17,820	17,334		
						4	4	126	126	2	2	10	10	120	120	16,981	17,129	17,865	17,865		

TABLE 2.—*Enrollment in seminaries, colleges, and academies, and in parochial schools, in 1911 and 1912—Continued.*

Ecclesiastical provinces.	Dioceses included in province.	Seminaries,				Colleges and academies,				Parishes with parochial schools,				Orphan asylums,				Children in Catholic institutions.			
		1911		1912		For boys,		For girls,		Number.		Pupils.		Number.		Inmates.		1911		1912	
		Num-ber.	Stu-dents.	Num-ber.	Stu-dents.	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912	1911	1912		
1.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20		
Cincinnati	Louisville	4	3	14	14	63	71	11,705	13,191	3	3	306	336	15,570	16,744	15,570	16,744	14,727	14,727		
	Nashville	1	1	6	5	24	23	3,352	3,605	2	2	260	300	4,727	4,727	13,941	13,941	13,530	13,530		
	Toledo	1	1	3	3	61	68	12,470	14,096	3	3	402	379	510	510	7,558	7,558	7,602	7,602		
	Cheyenne	1	1	1	1	1	1	150	108	1	1	85	122	6,707	6,707	2,129	2,129	30,815	30,815		
Dubuque	Davenport	1	1	6	7	44	44	5,975	6,015	1	1	180	230	29,850	29,850	1,180	1,180	5,947	5,947		
(Includes Iowa, Nebraska, Wyoming.)	Des Moines	1	1	3	2	16	17	1,579	2,437	1	1	180	230	29,850	29,850	1,180	1,180	5,947	5,947		
*Dinuba	Dinuba	1	1	12	12	86	86	25,000	25,000	1	1	180	230	29,850	29,850	1,180	1,180	5,947	5,947		
Kearny	Kearny	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	3	1	1	180	230	29,850	29,850	1,180	1,180	5,947	5,947		
Lincoln	Lincoln	1	1	3	3	24	24	2,405	2,405	1	1	180	230	29,850	29,850	1,180	1,180	5,947	5,947		
Omaha	Omaha	2	2	10	7	81	78	9,921	9,394	1	1	180	230	29,850	29,850	1,180	1,180	5,947	5,947		
Sioux City	Sioux City	3	3	3	3	63	54	7,576	7,702	1	1	180	230	29,850	29,850	1,180	1,180	5,947	5,947		
Green Bay	Green Bay	3	3	1	1	106	105	17,972	18,482	5	5	315	321	18,773	19,432	11,311	11,311	8,526	8,526		
La Crosse	La Crosse	1	1	2	2	77	75	10,238	10,308	1	1	163	182	11,066	11,066	11,311	11,311	19,432	19,432		
Marquette	Marquette	4	4	4	4	25	25	7,337	7,381	1	1	111	117	7,337	7,337	11,311	11,311	7,337	7,337		
*Milwaukee	Milwaukee	2	190	2	194	5	4	9	146	152	23,209	34,786	4	4	405	414	37,977	38,868	5,230	5,230	
Alexandria	Alexandria	3	3	5	5	22	23	4,797	4,870	1	1	45	45	4,993	5,230	2,176	2,176	2,176	2,176		
Cornelius Christi	Cornelius Christi	1	1	6	5	17	16	1,123	1,623	1	1	35	42	1,445	1,445	1,192	1,192	1,192	1,192		
Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, western Florida.)	Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, western Florida.)	1	1	11	11	31	37	4,976	5,902	1	1	86	65	5,365	5,365	5,800	5,800	6,403	6,403		
Mobile	Mobile	1	19	1	18	4	4	9	39	3,924	4,407	1	1	45	45	3,928	4,735	3,928	4,735		
Little Rock	Little Rock	1	1	22	22	8	7	44	43	3,564	3,585	1	1	104	128	3,928	4,735	3,928	4,735		
Natchez	Natchez	1	1	30	3	3	7	32	32	4,638	4,881	1	1	492	492	5,298	5,298	5,298	5,298		
New Orleans	New Orleans	3	3	1	1	2	2	3	3	1	1	180	230	29,850	29,850	1,180	1,180	5,947	5,947		
(Includes Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, western Florida.)	(Includes Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, western Florida.)	1	1	60	58	22	22	126	126	15,764	21,704	2	2	132	140	4,000	4,116	24,466	24,466		
San Antonio	San Antonio	1	30	1	31	14	14	40	41	4,488	6,078	1	1	126	126	6,376	6,376	6,150	6,150		
Albany	Albany	1	31	1	31	14	14	46	46	5,914	6,698	2	2	214	212	8,018	9,320	21,187	21,187		
Brooklyn	Brooklyn	1	72	1	60	3	3	50	50	19,011	18,302	11	15	7,400	7,400	7,400	7,400	39,607	39,607		
Buffalo	Buffalo	2	170	2	161	4	4	8	8	32,781	33,240	12	15	53,152	53,352	1,195	1,195	1,195	1,195		
Newark	Newark	3	66	2	67	10	10	10	10	32,781	33,240	12	15	53,152	53,352	1,195	1,195	1,195	1,195		
(State, New Jersey.)	(State, New Jersey.)	3	66	2	67	10	10	10	10	32,781	33,240	12	15	53,152	53,352	1,195	1,195	1,195	1,195		



CHAPTER VII.

RECENT MOVEMENTS IN NEGRO EDUCATION.

By THOMAS JESSE JONES,
Specialist in the Bureau of Education.

CONTENTS: Public schools; the work of the Jeanes Fund; State rural supervisors; farm demonstration work; teachers' associations; the negro organization society of Virginia; denominational boards and home missions council; negro schools and self-help in education; conference of rural industrial schools for colored people in the South.

The past year has witnessed a number of interesting and significant movements for the improvement of education for the negroes of the Southern States. The most notable of these are the activities of the Jeanes Fund, under the direction of Dr. J. H. Dillard; the farmers' cooperative demonstration work; the appointment of State supervisors of rural schools in Virginia, Kentucky, and Arkansas; the increase of efficient supervision by several of the religious boards that maintain schools for colored people; the organization of a comprehensive study of the private and higher schools for the education of colored people by the United States Bureau of Education and the Phelps-Stokes Fund; and numerous educational conferences disseminating information and inspiration among the workers in colored schools. Interpreting education broadly, there must be added to the above list the noteworthy building campaigns of the Young Men's Christian Association among colored people, and the successful meetings of the national and State associations of colored teachers.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

It is very difficult to ascertain the nature and extent of the efforts of public officials for the education of the colored people. Last year the Commissioner of Education sent the following list of questions to the various State superintendents, church boards, school presidents, newspaper editors, and others throughout the South who are interested in educational work among colored people:

What improvements in the public schools for negroes have been made by the State, county, or city officials of your State within the year ending June 30, 1912? How have the colored people themselves helped in this improvement? Please record changes in the building, equipment, or course of study.

Have the institutions controlled by religious or other private boards made any notable changes?

What conventions, fairs, conferences, or other meetings of educational value to the negro race have been held in your State during the year ending June 30, 1912?

Have any organizations, clubs, or movements such as boys' corn clubs, farm demonstration movement, or health organizations for the improvements of colored people been carried on during the year ending June 30, 1912?

Many of those to whom the questions were sent failed to reply, and in most cases the answers received were not sufficiently full and concise to make possible any extensive tabulation or classification of the data. The replies show, however, with a considerable degree of uniformity throughout the States, a few very important facts concerning the improvement in the school facilities and the educational progress of the colored people. Replies were received from more than half of the superintendents of Southern States. These replies indicate, in a measure, the attitude toward negro schools.

One State superintendent writes:

There has never been any serious attempt in this State to offer adequate educational facilities for the colored race. The average length of the term for the State is only four months; practically all of the schools are taught in dilapidated churches, which, of course, are not equipped with suitable desks, blackboards, and the other essentials of a school; practically all of the teachers are incompetent, possessing little or no education and having had no professional training whatever, except a few weeks obtained in the summer schools; the schools are generally overcrowded, some of them having as many as 100 students to the teacher; no attempt is made to do more than teach the children to read, write, and figure, and these subjects are learned very imperfectly. There are six or eight industrial supervisors financed in whole or in part by the Jeanes Fund; most of these teachers are stimulating the negro schools to do very good work and are gradually inducing them to base their work upon the practical things of life. A few wide-awake negro teachers not connected with the Jeanes Fund are doing the same thing. It can probably be truthfully said that the negro schools here are gradually improving, but they are still just about as poor and inadequate as they can be.

Another says:

The only notable improvement made in the public schools for negroes, so far as I am informed, is the appointment of two additional supervisors by the Jeanes Fund in two counties of the State. These supervisors were appointed at the request of the county superintendents and, as you know, are paid out of the Jeanes Fund.

A third reports:

There has been no special work for the colored schools during the past year. Our State gives each colored school about \$196 a year for every teacher it employs. The law requires the district to raise not less than \$50 by taxes for every teacher it employs. The district is seldom able to raise more than \$50 by taxation, though it is noticeable that they are attempting to increase the amount raised. The State has built quite a number of schools for colored pupils this past year and repaired a great many more. Practically all the

schools and the repairs to buildings have to be made by the State. Our buildings for the colored pupils are being put into better shape every year. One of the noticeable improvements has been in the way of better qualified teachers, who are graduates of the State College for Colored Students and from institutions in other States. This is a hopeful sign.

Still another says:

I have your circular letter asking for information concerning progress of negro education. I am unable to give much light on these matters; * * * I have no definite information in regard to its progress.

The reply of another is:

We have no marked improvement to record for the negro public schools of this State during last year. Our annual report shows that the sum of \$635,000 was expended by the State on the common schools for negroes. In addition, through private, denominational, and other sources, large amounts have been expended for industrial, secondary, and collegiate education. In some instances the colored people have helped, but this has not been the rule.

Different in tone is this reply:

In response to your circular inquiry, inclosed with your letter of the 3d instant, regarding negro education, I advise that it is very difficult to secure definite information, because none of the items in the reports to this office are segregated, except the population, enrollment, and attendance. The average daily attendance of negroes in the public schools for the year ending June 30, 1911, was 66,958; for the year ending June 30, 1912, it was 68,040. I can safely say, however, that there has been a decided improvement in negro education along all lines within the past few years—better buildings and longer terms, even in the rural communities. Much of this is due to the rapidly growing sentiment that practical education of the negro is an economic profit. The desire for industrial education is growing among the negroes, and several private institutions of this character are now being promoted. Several counties have flourishing negro teachers' associations and the State association is well attended each year. We now have county superintendency in 15 counties, and the superintendents, with the aid of the Jeanes Fund agents, are doing much to raise the standard of rural negro schools to some degree of efficiency. The negro schools in all our towns and cities compare in all matters of equipment very favorably with the schools for the white children, having the same length of term, I believe, in all instances.

Another interesting reply follows:

Under our law the colored schools of the district, which are separate from the white, are continued for the same length of term and their teachers are paid the same rate of salary as for the white schools. It is true that the average salary of the colored teachers is lower than that of the white teachers, but this is due to the fact that the average grade of certificate is lower. In the second place, we have two State institutions for colored pupils doing work of a secondary nature, with part of it ranking as college work. We have undertaken little in the way of special organization, but we have given the support necessary for standard work, and under State authority standard results are required. We do not have a large number of colored farmers, but the county demonstrator of this county and the extension workers of the university give assistance to the colored farmers on the same conditions that they do to the white.

Mr. W. K. Tate, State supervisor of elementary schools of South Carolina, reports for that State:

During the current year the negro schools of the State enrolled 193,440 pupils. The greater part of the pupils were in the country schools of the State, and these schools show an increased enrollment of negro pupils every year. The education of the negro in South Carolina is in the hands of the white race. The white trustees apportion the funds, select the teachers, and receive the reports. The county superintendent has the supervision of these schools in his hands. The State expended last year \$349,834.60 in the support of negro schools.

Mr. Tate thinks a large part of this money is wasted for want of better qualified teachers and more adequate supervision, and that the State is missing a great opportunity in not making these schools better. He says the negro schoolhouses are usually without comfort, equipment, proper lighting, or sanitation.

Nearly all the negroes of school age in the district are crowded into these miserable structures during the first term of the school. Most of the teachers are absolutely untrained and have been given certificates by the county board, not because they have passed the examination, but because it is necessary to have some kind of a negro teacher.

Among the negro rural schools which I have visited I have found only one in which the highest class knew the multiplication table. The teacher is attempting to use the books and follow the course of study provided by the State board of education and intended primarily for white schools.

The books used have little significance for the negro children, and the lessons little relation to the present or future lives of the children. No attempt is made to help the untrained and incompetent negro teachers to adapt to the special needs of the negro schools a course of study and textbooks designed primarily for white children.

The negro is now, and will be for years to come, the tenant farmer of South Carolina. His welfare and the prosperity of the white race depend largely on his efficiency as a farmer. I believe that the time has now come for us to attack the negro school problem with the serious intention of adapting the school to the special needs of the negro farmer, in an endeavor to teach him agriculture, to encourage manual training, cooking, sewing, personal cleanliness, and hygienic conditions in his home, along with the elements of a common-school education. The school should endeavor to set for him a better standard of living and to increase those ever-present and insistent wants which center about a well-kept home, thus securing for him a better existence, and for the landowner a more constant labor supply. This problem has not yet been solved, and the "well done" of the whole State awaits the county superintendent and trustees who will attack it vigorously.

THE WORK OF THE JEANES FUND.

The work of the Jeanes Fund, which has been mentioned above as one of the factors contributing to the improvement of negro education, is described in the following statement by Dr. James H. Dillard, president of the fund:

The work began four years ago. Miss Jeanes, the donor of the fund, desired to aid in improving the small rural schools for negroes, and the plan of supply-

ing to county or parish superintendents the salary for a trained industrial supervisor was hit upon as the most effective way of using the resources of the fund. Last session there were industrial supervisors in 121 counties. Our average appropriation to the counties was \$297.56.

Summary of supervising industrial teachers, 1912-13.

State.	Number of supervising teachers.	Number of counties.	Total salaries paid by fund.	Average per county.
Alabama.....	16	17	\$5,127.50	\$301.62
Arkansas.....	8	8	2,835.00	354.37
Florida.....	5	5	1,630.00	326.00
Georgia.....	17	17	4,750.00	279.41
Louisiana.....	10	11	2,965.00	269.55
Maryland.....	1	1	337.50	337.50
Mississippi.....	17	17	5,412.50	318.38
North Carolina.....	14	13	3,770.00	290.00
South Carolina.....	10	10	3,065.00	306.50
Tennessee.....	5	5	1,460.00	292.00
Texas.....	7	7	1,915.00	273.57
Virginia.....	9	10	2,737.50	273.75
Special teachers.....	119	121	36,005.00	297.56
	5	1,395.00
Total.....	124	37,400.00

Average (total) salary for 37 men..... \$348.58.

Average length of service for men..... 7 months, 9 days.

Average (total) salary for 82 women..... \$308.41.

Average length of service for women..... 7 months, 9 days.

What was done may be seen from an article by Supt. J. P. Oliver, of Tallapoosa County, Ala., in the Progressive School Journal, of which the following is a summary:

Perhaps no one thing has claimed the attention of our educators of late that means more for our rural schools than efficient county supervision. If anything more was needed to convince me of its supreme importance, or what it means for the advancement of the rural schools, I have but to call to mind what it has done for our colored schools in Tallapoosa County during the present scholastic year.

Through correspondence with Dr. J. H. Dillard, of New Orleans, I secured the services of Prof. Thomas J. Edwards, his expenses to be defrayed from the Jeanes Fund. On November 1, 1911, Edwards reported to me for work, with a letter from Dr. Dillard, placing him under my direction.

After mapping out his line of work, Edwards commenced visiting the colored schools in the county, making weekly written reports to me, and getting further directions for each ensuing week. He commenced at once to organize in each colored school visited a school improvement association, cooperative corn and cotton clubs, where the school children and patrons cultivated the grounds, taking lessons in agriculture at the same time. It was agreed that the proceeds arising from this work should inure to the benefit of the school, in adding to the equipment, extending the length of the school term, and introducing manual labor, both for boys and girls.

Edwards has kept me fully posted as to his work, and it is simply wonderful how much has been accomplished in so short a time. I have visited several of these schools in person, and the improvement is most striking. The school yards have been cleared off and planted in trees and flowers, corn and cotton

clubs organized and work done on the little farms, and manual art and domestic science introduced into most of the schools; the children learn woodwork, raffia and straw basket-making, and sewing; they seem cheerful and industrious, and they are making progress; moreover, this work does not seem to decrease their interest in their books.

About two months ago an exhibition of the work done in these schools was given in the colored Baptist Church in Dadeville, and it was a revelation to all attending. The several schools vied with each other. The boys exhibited axe and hammer handles, shuck foot mats, etc., of their own make, and told also of what they were doing on the school farms, while the girls showed baskets and hats of all sizes and shapes wrought from raffia, straw, and shucks, as well as all kinds of needlework, from coarse fabrics to the finest hand-embroidered centerpieces. This general interest, brought about by social contact and community cooperation, has resulted in lengthening school terms from two to three months and the organization and establishment of the Tallapoosa County Colored Fair, to be held in the New Adka community, in this county, on November 14-15, 1912, at which premiums are offered to encourage manual art in schools and increase agricultural production by colored farmers.

I have written about this because it is something new in our colored schools. If this kind of supervision does so much for colored schools, what may we expect for our white schools if our new law for county supervision is made effective by our county boards of education, giving such clerical aid to our county superintendents as will enable them to give most of their time in visiting and supervising our white rural schools?

It should be added that the supervising industrial teacher is appointed by the county or parish superintendent and works under his direction—is, in fact, one of his corps of teachers. In some instances the local school authorities add to the amount of appropriation, either by augmenting the salary of the supervisor or by contributing to the expenses of traveling over the county.

I believe that this plan, which has been called the Henrico plan, because in that county in Virginia it was first put into effective operation over a whole county, will be adopted very generally. It is most gratifying to note the hearty indorsement which it has received from State and county superintendents throughout the South. To some readers in Louisiana it may be of interest to know that Iberville Parish was the first place in which was inaugurated this method of having an industrial teacher make the rounds of a number of rural schools.

STATE RURAL SUPERVISORS.

A most important outgrowth of the Jeanes Fund work in cooperation with the extension department of Hampton Institute has been the appointment of Mr. Jackson Davis as State supervisor of rural schools in Virginia. This appointment is a cooperative arrangement between the General Education Board and the Virginia State Department of Education. Mr. Davis is engaged in the direction and encouragement of rural schools for negroes. The "Henrico plan," described above, originated under his supervision in Virginia. During the past year he has directed county supervision in 18 Virginia counties. The value of this work is indicated in Mr. Davis's report for 1911-12. This report shows that the school terms in these 18 counties was lengthened an average of 1 month; that 9 new build-

ings were erected at a cost of \$5,200; that 12 buildings were enlarged, costing \$1,068; that 12 buildings were painted and 69 whitewashed; that 37 sanitary outhouses were built; that individual drinking cups were introduced in 102 schools; that 348 improvement leagues were formed among school patrons; and, most significant of all, that \$13,744 in cash was raised and considerable labor and material contributed by the colored people themselves of these 18 counties. In addition to supervision of the schools, the summer work of the supervising industrial teachers in Virginia is no less noteworthy. The work consists chiefly of the formation of garden and preserving clubs among the girls. Mr. Davis's report shows that in 8 counties alone 267 girls were in garden clubs; 202 gardens were planted, of which 140 were well cared for; 67 girls planted vegetables for fall; 172 canning demonstrations were given; 3,946 jars of vegetables were put up by the girls; 6,006 jars were put up by their mothers; and 86 cooking lessons were given.

In view of the excellent possibilities indicated by the work of Mr. Davis in Virginia, it is of real significance that through the cooperation of the General Education Board State supervisors of rural schools have been appointed in Kentucky, Arkansas, Alabama, and North Carolina. Other States have decided to appoint similar officers.

FARM DEMONSTRATION WORK.

Closely allied with the work of the Jeanes Fund and the State supervisors is that of the farm demonstration work which was begun by the late Dr. Knapp. This work is carried on under the direction of the United States Department of Agriculture in cooperation with the General Education Board.

There were 32 negro farm demonstrators in 1912, distributed among the States as follows: Virginia, 10; Alabama, 7; South Carolina, 7; Georgia, 2; North Carolina, 2; Florida, 1; Oklahoma, 1; Arkansas, 1; Mississippi, 1. In speaking of the work of these agents, Mr. Bradford Knapp said in his recent report to the General Education Board:

I believe that it is safe to say that these, together with the negro farmers and tenants who are receiving direct instruction through white agents, will bring the total of negroes being instructed up to about 20,000.

As an illustration of the work of the negro demonstrators, Mr. Knapp describes the activities of one of them in the Wellville community, in Virginia:

The improvement in the Wellville community under the special superintendence of J. B. Pierce is a source of great interest and presents a showing that is little short of remarkable. Some of these negro farmers are making yields of corn from 50 to 200 per cent larger than they did formerly, and are doing it

at less cost per bushel. They have become immensely interested in grass demonstrations, and some of them have produced as high as 2 tons of hay per acre, while formerly they grew no grass whatever. Seventy-five per cent of these farmers are now growing wheat and 35 per cent of them are growing oats, and the acreage has vastly increased over what it was before. They are building up their soils by the use of cowpeas, crimson clover, soy beans, rye, and buckwheat. Before the demonstration work began in this community only one crop was grown on the cornland and the land was continuously cropped to the one crop, year in and year out. Now fully 40 per cent of the farmers with whom this work is conducted have adopted two or three year rotation of crops.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Colored State teachers' associations have been organized and have held meetings during the year in the following States: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. A National Association of Colored Teachers was organized in 1904 and has held meetings annually each year since that time. Teachers representing 21 States were present at the last meeting. These meetings are having a wholesome effect in creating higher ideals, better methods, and a mutual cooperation among teachers in meeting the problems of their communities in the best possible way. The numerous State superintendents who replied to the questionnaire mentioned above spoke in the highest terms of the State associations of colored teachers.

THE NEGRO ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF VIRGINIA.

The Negro Organization Society of Virginia represents a unique movement to combine all sorts and conditions of organizations of colored people in Virginia and to direct their efforts to the realization of the society's motto, namely: "Better schools, better health, better homes, better farms."

DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS AND HOME MISSIONS COUNCIL.

Within the past two years many of the church boards in control of schools for colored people have appointed field agents or inspectors to supervise the work of their schools. The religious boards that have been especially active in the management of their schools are: The American Missionary Association, the American Baptist Home Mission Society, the American Church Institute of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. These four boards are not only studying their own schools, but they are also cooperating through a committee of the Home Missions Council in order to avoid duplication of effort

and be mutually helpful in all their work. The Board of Missions of the Presbyterian Church has also increased its supervision within the last few months. Of the colored boards the African M. E. Zion is considered one of the best organized and most efficient in the general management of its schools. The supervision carried on by these church boards is of great value, and the results of their endeavors appear in many phases of school activities. Inasmuch as a very large proportion of all the teacher training received by colored teachers is provided in these schools, the increased effectiveness of their work should in time extend to the public schools.

Owing to the incompleteness of the replies to our inquiries, it is not possible to give a statement of the financial contributions of these boards or of the additions in equipment which they have made to the schools for colored people. The replies received, however, indicate that a number of good buildings have been erected and other improvements made within the last year by the denominational organizations.

NEGRO SCHOOLS AND SELF-HELP IN EDUCATION.

The sources of information as to the education of colored people are of uncertain value. This is especially true of the information pertaining to the provisions for negroes in public school systems. With due allowance for this uncertainty of sources, a recent compilation of statistics made by Mr. Monroe N. Work, of Tuskegee Institute, presents a view of the situation that is worthy of attention. Mr. Work's article is in part as follows:

PROGRESS IN NEGRO EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

It appears that the greatest progress now making in the public elementary schools of the South is in lengthening the school term and in providing more and better schoolhouses. There are 9 States which report the length of the colored school term separately. According to the latest available information, the length of term in days was as follows: Alabama, 96; Florida, 96; Georgia, in counties, 109, in special systems, 164; Louisiana, 92; North Carolina, 93; South Carolina, 70; Texas, 124; Virginia, 122; Maryland, 138. In Maryland, Texas, and Virginia, the term for the colored is more than six months; in Alabama and Florida there has been considerable fluctuation in the length of the school term. In Alabama, in 1908, the average length of the school term for the colored schools was 95 days; in 1909 it was 98 days; in 1910, 90 days; in 1911, 95 days; and in 1912, 96 days. In Florida the average length of the colored school term in 1907 was 96 days; in 1908, 99 days; in 1909, 90 days; and in 1910, 96 days. In Georgia in 1911 the term was 4 days longer than in 1910 and 7 days longer than in 1909.

Nine States report the amount of school property used by colored schools as follows:

Value of property used by colored schools.

State.	Value of school property used by colored schools.	
	Total value.	Average per child of school age.
Alabama.....	\$648,986	\$1.97
Delaware.....	33,095	3.39
Florida.....	299,392	3.47
Georgia.....	652,284	1.80
Kentucky.....	642,412	6.83
Louisiana.....	275,767	1.24
North Carolina.....	677,448	2.84
South Carolina.....	504,127	1.74
Texas.....	1,344,882	6.09

In Florida, the increase in the value of negro school buildings and sites for the year 1910 was \$25,500; for the four years, 1906 to 1910, the increase was \$72,000. In Alabama, the increase for the year 1912 was \$56,000; the increase for the nine years, 1903 to 1912, was \$449,590. For the seven years, 1903 to 1910, the value of school property in Georgia increased \$280,000. The principal increase in negro public school property, by means of public funds, has been in cities. In the rural districts, the increase has been largely by means of money raised directly from the people.

The reports of 15 of these States, and the District of Columbia, give data from which information concerning the amount of expenditure for negro public schools can be obtained. These States, and their annual expenditures for this purpose, are as follows:

Expenditures for negro public schools.

State.	Total.	Average per child—	
		Of school age.	Enrolled.
Alabama.....	\$465,192	\$1.41	\$3.41
Delaware.....	52,763	5.42	10.44
District of Columbia.....	857,348		47.45
Florida.....	257,369	2.98	4.65
Georgia.....	606,558	1.68	2.72
Kentucky.....	624,843	6.64	10.71
Louisiana.....	312,178	1.40	3.74
Mississippi.....	538,953	1.31	2.26
Missouri.....	556,207	12.96	18.81
North Carolina.....	537,998	2.26	3.35
South Carolina.....	349,834	1.20	1.71
Tennessee.....	619,629	3.28	6.39
Texas.....	1,238,737	6.44	7.60
Virginia.....	672,475	3.14	5.73
West Virginia.....	200,705	11.78	17.74

In Alabama the expenditures in 1912 were \$17,600 greater than in 1911 and \$45,000 greater than in 1910. In Florida they were \$411,800 greater in 1910 than in 1909, and \$42,300 greater than in 1907. In Georgia they were \$100,800 greater in 1911 than in 1910.

The total expenditures for negro elementary education in the South in 1912 were about \$8,700,000. Wherever there has been an increase in expenditure, it has been mainly to pay the increased number of teachers.

TEACHERS' SALARIES AND CERTIFICATES.

Eight States give information about salaries, and nine report the grades of certificates of teachers in colored public schools. These facts are given in the following table:

Teachers' salaries and certificates.

State.	Average yearly salaries of colored teachers.		Certificates held by colored public school teachers.					
	Male.	Female.	Total.	First grade.	Second grade.	Third grade.	Life.	Temporary.
Alabama.....	\$175	\$155	2,344	38	564	1,612	130	-----
Florida.....	165	150	954	93	457	353	-----	51
Georgia.....			3,734	420	770	1,936	71	537
County systems.....	143	110						
Special systems.....	385	230						
Kentucky.....			1,254	655	411	120	68	-----
Louisiana.....	147	129	1,175	148	278	749	-----	
North Carolina.....	118	118	2,398	748	1,608	42	-----	
South Carolina.....	132	98	2,752	1,274	1,017	461	-----	
Texas.....	322	260	3,192	454	2,091	187	460	-----
Virginia.....	183	165	2,367	946	336	215	194	676

It does not appear that in recent years there has been any striking change in the relative number of teachers holding first, second, and third grade certificates. It appears that one of the reasons why there is not a larger percentage of first and second grade teachers is because of the small salaries paid. The higher educational institutions and the rapidly developing negro business enterprises pay much larger salaries and therefore obtain the best equipped colored men and women. The percentage of trained teachers in negro elementary schools is small, and the majority of them are in the city schools. In order to do more effective work in both city and rural schools, there must be a large number of efficient teachers. One result would be that the masses who are dependent upon these schools for their education would receive training better fitted to their needs. Another result would be that the higher schools would get students prepared to do their work. These schools would then not be compelled, as they now are, to spend so much of their resources in giving elementary training.

There are probably 100,000 students enrolled in these higher schools. Of those in public high schools, 17 per cent are in elementary grades. Of those in the 238 secondary and higher schools for which information is available, 58 per cent are in elementary grades. There is every reason to suppose that in those schools for which information is not available, the percentage of those in elementary grades is still greater. The enrollment in the 136 public high schools in 1911 was 10,897, of whom 1,855 were in elementary grades. In the 238 secondary and higher schools there were 70,095 students enrolled. Of these, 5,313 were in collegiate and professional classes, 23,834 were secondary students, and 40,945 were elementary pupils.

The annual expenditures for negro secondary and higher education are estimated to be about \$4,500,000. It is estimated that the total value of the

property, including equipments, grounds, and buildings owned by the institutions for secondary and higher education, is about \$20,000,000. The endowments or productive funds of these schools total approximately \$6,100,000. Of this amount \$2,100,000 is credited to colleges and universities and \$4,000,000 to normal and industrial schools.

SECONDARY AND HIGHER SCHOOLS.

Concerning the more than 600 institutions for secondary and higher training of the negro, there is available but meager information. Many of these institutions are colleges and industrial schools in name only, and are, in fact, doing elementary school work. The leaders of the race are discouraging the tendency to increase the number of these institutions; they advise instead that those now existing be improved. There is a widespread movement for improved school plants, increased efficiency in teaching, and greater emphasis upon community uplift. The general conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, at its recent session in Minneapolis, designated 1913 as a jubilee year for the schools of the Freedmen's Aid Society, and launched a campaign to raise a half million dollars during the present year for their support. The American Missionary Association, at its meeting in Buffalo in October, 1912, set on foot a movement to raise \$1,000,000 by October, 1913, for the secondary and higher education of the negroes of the South.

SELF HELP IN EDUCATION.

As the colored people of the South grow more prosperous, they contribute more largely to the expense of their education. It is estimated that through churches and other movements they are raising each year about \$1,000,000 for the support of schools. There are about 175 colleges and industrial schools that are supported by negro religious denominations. The colored Baptists have the largest number of these schools; the statistical secretary of the denomination enumerates 125 in his last report. According to the report of the Freedmen's Aid Society, negroes comprise one-tenth of the membership of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and the colored conferences raised \$32,387 of the \$157,712 raised by the church for negro education in 1910-11. The African Methodist Episcopal Church, for the support of its 20 colleges and normal schools, raises each year about \$150,000. The Colored Methodist Episcopal Church raised last year for education \$115,000. The negro Baptists of Alabama, in addition to supporting a number of district academies, raise each year something like \$30,000 for the support of Selma University. The women's auxiliary of the National Baptist convention reported for the past fiscal year \$26,968 raised. Of this amount, \$18,992 was reported to have been spent on the National Training School for Girls at Washington, D. C. It was also reported that local organizations had raised \$8,000 for this institution. Much of the negro self-help in education is in the direction of supporting public schools. During the past year at Barlow Bend, Clarke County, Ala., the colored people built a two-room schoolhouse at a cost of \$1,200 and deeded it to the State. The only financial aid they received in the undertaking was \$200 from the State building fund; the bulk of the money was raised by the colored people themselves. This is an example of what is done in every section of the South.

The following "Memorandum Regarding New Schools," recently issued by Dr. Booker T. Washington, indicates an attitude toward

schools for colored people which is held by an increasing number of thoughtful people:

After considering the whole matter very carefully with prominent educators representing various parts of the South, I am thoroughly convinced that it is a matter of doubtful wisdom to encourage, except under peculiarly favorable circumstances, the starting of additional new and independent schools in the South for our people. These schools, to accomplish any good, ought to be well managed, under a competent board of trustees, and not represent the mere personal ambition or activity of any one individual. In many cases the money given for such schools is more than wasted, not only because of improper organization and supervision, but also in large items for traveling expenses.

It is the consensus of opinion of all who have studied the subject that the time has come when money ought to be concentrated upon strengthening of existing institutions rather than the starting of new ones. In many cases much harm has been done by establishing additional schools in the same locality. I know of special cases where persons are striving to build schools within a few miles of other and existing well-organized schools. It would, by far, be the better plan in the future, in my opinion, rather than to start additional small schools, depending upon the public for an uncertain support, to spend the money in *strengthening the public schools*. In many cases these small, poorly organized schools not only accomplish little good, but are weakening the public-school system. The public-school system, of course, is permanent, and has the advantage of supervision. Instead of starting new schools, I advise that the old schools be strengthened or that the money be given in a way to strengthen the work of the public schools in the various localities of the South.

CONFERENCE OF RURAL INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE IN THE SOUTH.

Representatives of a number of educational institutions for negroes met in New York City recently for a conference on the rural industrial schools for colored people in the South. It was planned to weld into one system the isolated schools for negroes throughout the Southern States.

The most perplexing problem discussed was that of raising funds for these schools, which are now in danger of losing ground. Other topics of interest were the adoption of standard courses of study, uniform system of accounting, the joint purchasing of stock supplies, and the elimination of unworthy schools.

At the close of the discussion the following resolution was adopted:

The committee on permanent organization reports the belief that a permanent organization of the principals or heads of industrial schools for colored people is desirous for various reasons, primarily for the purpose of presenting their case and their needs to the public, and again for holding annual conferences, not only to exchange views and to profit by mutual experience, but actually to help economize time and expenditure of money in business management and mutually to improve the operation of the courses of study. They recommend for the first year a simple organization, comprising a president, vice president, secretary, and treasurer, and a small board of directors, not to

exceed seven; that the founders be such of the schools represented here as have authority to join or are willing to join after hearing from their representatives here in attendance; that the dues shall not exceed \$10 per school for the first year; that another conference be held in October or November, 1913, to complete the organization, adopt the constitution and by-laws, select the permanent secretary, and hear the report of a committee comprising the officers and directors as to future activity.

The committee also recommends that the officers and directors be a committee to report upon the adoption of a standard system of accounting and a standard curriculum, and the feasibility of cooperation in the purchasing of stock supplies.

CHAPTER VIII.

PROGRESS OF THE MOVEMENT FOR THE BENEFIT OF THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD, IN THE YEAR 1912.

By MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN.

The year 1912 has marked a turning point in the interest and work for the exceptional child in this country.

In the first place, it has been a year of intense activity on behalf of the movement which is intended to bring relief to this class of children who are still under a tremendous handicap. Investigations in city and State school systems and all over the United States were made, which succeeded in developing a great number of important facts as to the number and kinds of exceptional children. The causes and conditions of retardation, of criminality and prostitution, of dependency and defectiveness were earnestly discussed. The courses of instruction in our public and private schools were carefully and often minutely dissected and criticised, so as to establish their effect upon the production of retardation and vocational unfitness among the American school population.

The pedagogical and psychological courses in many colleges and universities added to their schedules a study of the causes and conditions of exceptional development in children; and even in the medical world there has been great activity along these lines. The problem of adjustment of public school work, of provisions for certain classes of exceptional children, and of preventing undesirable developments and the reproduction of defective classes, has occupied a number of State legislatures and municipal administrations. The United States Bureau of Education has paid considerable attention to the significance of this problem, and a new agency for the study of children's handicaps has been established by organizing a Children's Bureau as a part of the Department of Commerce and Labor. The relation of child labor and social conditions to growth and mental development will thus be more thoroughly studied than was possible heretofore.

In all the conventions of leading societies the problem of the exceptional child was considered with great earnestness, so that it is now recognized as one of the most important problems of the age. The most notable of these discussions were those at the midwinter meeting of the American Academy of Medicine at Lehigh University, at the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography in Washington, and at the Congress on Mental Hygiene in New York City. The National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children devoted a notable convention to the entire perspective of the problem, with special reference to the needs of the exceptionally bright child and of the retarded child. This conference was a distinct protest against the agitation of the alarmists who endeavor to confine public attention to the feeble-minded and degenerate, and against the tendency to overstate the importance of that part of the problem. The fact that the Commissioner of Education of the United States, and Dr. George S. Davis, president of the Normal College, New York City, were the presiding officers of this conference testified to its importance.

Perhaps the most notable progress that has been made in the year 1912 in the handling of this problem is the effort to adopt a more generally accepted and complete terminology. The confusion in terms has been one of the most unfortunate difficulties in the discussion of the various phases of exceptional development, and certainly one of the causes why the problem of the exceptional child has been so often misunderstood. It is not merely, or to any great extent, the problem of the so-called defective, of the subnormal, and of the abnormal child. In fact, even in studying the causes of criminality, it is well to realize that the stupid and weak-minded criminal, undesirable a factor as he may be in society, is not as dangerous as the clever and intellectual criminal. Moral perverts are not necessarily imbeciles in other mental operations. Again it is often a matter of misdirected potentials in really gifted minds, and consequently the result of environmental causes which can be studied and regulated. The problem of pubescence and adolescence plays a great part in the problem of criminality. Vocational failure, owing to improper vocational education, must also be considered as a contributory factor. Racial differences in temperament and historical spirit, and difficulties of social adjustment in a nation which has grown through immigration, contribute their part to predispose for the breaking of laws. It is often the exceptionally bright child, even the genius, whom we find on the wrong side.

All these distinctions can be satisfactorily made only when we have learned to classify properly and to use generally applied terms. The United States Bureau of Education has accepted the general term

"exceptional" to designate all deviations from the average type, upward as well as downward. The terms "atypical," "subnormal," and "abnormal" are becoming more and more restored to their respective places in a complete scheme of classification. In some places the term "atypical" is still unfortunately used as a euphonic term for mentally defective and feeble-minded.

It is a matter of course that in classifying and diagnosing various degrees and kinds of exceptional development in children, it is necessary to establish certain definite criteria and to develop a scale of intelligence and a system of mental tests which would allow the investigator to make a reliable diagnosis. The Binet-Simon tests have been widely used for examining children and placing them into groups or strata. They have been very helpful, especially in determining degrees of feeble-mindedness; yet it was found that the tests in their original form were not easily adaptable nor easily applicable to American children, and presented other imperfections, so that efforts have been made to readjust and develop them. A number of American psychologists have published during the year the results of their experiments and their suggestions for amplifying and articulating the tests. Some very notable contributions to the psychology of mental development in childhood have thus been produced. A new method of testing the intellectual status and the possibility of mental growth in children has been published in the year 1912 by the National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children. This method is based upon certain facts of genetic child psychology not heretofore fully recognized.

The Legislature of the State of New Jersey was the first to enact a law which provided for the establishment of special classes in the public schools for different kinds of exceptional children; and while still a disproportionate emphasis is given to provisions for the feeble-minded child, the other classes of exceptional children are at least considered in this legislation.

There was an increasing activity in providing special classes and schools in a number of American city school systems, and special supervisors and medical examiners were detailed for such work. This movement naturally created a great demand for teachers trained to work with children of difficult mental development, and this demand has induced several normal schools and the pedagogical and psychological departments of some universities and colleges to open training courses for teachers of special and ungraded classes. In the summer of 1912 an unusually large number of such courses were carried on. The National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children, which had suggested the need of such courses years ago, and had given opportunities to individual teachers

in connection with its own laboratory school for some time past, had also opened its first regularly organized summer course.

The difficulty has been that these special and ungraded classes, with the exception of those which have been organized in some cities for crippled, anemic, tuberculous, and similarly afflicted children, have so far been imperfectly graded. They contain a great variety of difficult children, mostly those who are distinctly defective, mentally or morally, and may be broadly classed as feeble-minded. The expense connected with these classes has been considerable in comparison with those for ordinary pupils, and the criticism has been justified that the money thus expended represents an unprofitable investment; for a feeble-minded child can not be really educated, and must be considered a permanent burden on society. It has become more and more recognized that the place for the permanently deficient and feeble-minded child is not in the public school, but that he can be much more profitably and effectively maintained in custodial institutions. The function of the special and ungraded classes is seen to be that of furnishing opportunities for the potentially normal child to receive the attention commensurate to his needs and peculiarities, so that he may be either returned to the ordinary grades or placed in special schools or institutions which would develop his particular talents and facilities so that he may find his vocational groove and become a useful member of society. In the same way the exceptionally bright child will be benefited by such special and adjusted training as will inspire him with the right motives and enable him to use his gifts for constructive purposes. It has been justly said that we should have special classes or schools for the training of our leaders and our great men in such manner as to make them leaders for good and not misleaders, demagogues, and trouble-makers.

It has been gratifying that the special and ungraded classes are utilized as a sort of educational clearing house. In fact, in our eastern metropolis a municipal clearing house for exceptional children under the Department of Charities has been established, which undoubtedly will have an opportunity for splendid work.

Naturally provisions for the subnormal child, the blind, the deaf and dumb, the epileptic, the child of arrested or of primitive development, are also of importance, and the year 1912 has brought an era of awakening also in this respect. It is more and more intelligently understood that all these problems are one great problem, which is social as well as educational.

Thus the year 1912 has brought us face to face with the fact that there must be an intelligent and united effort on the part of educators, medical men, social workers, charity organizations, child-

welfare societies, juvenile courts, and other agencies dealing with the results of the failure properly to handle exceptional conditions in childhood. This can be done only if there are legislative enactments making every child, ordinary or exceptional, normal or subnormal or abnormal, a public responsibility. So far the physically or mentally handicapped child is in a measure exempt from the workings of the compulsory-education laws. The very children who need special attention and who may become burdens and dangers to society are dependent for their education, special training, or custody upon the good will of their parents, who are often enough disinclined to follow the right course. The provisions that exist in States and municipalities are so divided among various agencies with conflicting authority that it is difficult to carry out even those measures which present laws would permit. At present boards of education, boards of health, departments of charity and correction, juvenile courts, children's aid societies, commissions in lunacy, and similar agencies are each dealing separately with cases which would be handled better by some central authority. We need legislation which would establish the right of the Commonwealth to direct the education and training of every child, and which would secure to the State and municipality an authority which can not be superseded by parental prejudices.

We also need legislation which would establish such a board or boards as can regulate and determine the disposition which is to be made of every child according to his needs and to the good of society.

In this connection it may not be amiss to call attention once more to the resolutions which were originally adopted by the Department of Special Education at the Boston meeting of the National Education Association in 1910, and in a modified form were accepted unanimously by the San Francisco meeting in 1911:

Realizing the fact that a large percentage of children whose physical and mental peculiarities require special methods of education are still to a great extent outside the scope of the compulsory-education laws, and that the presence of the exceptional child in our modern civilization constitutes a problem of the greatest import, it is the sense of this association that the compulsory-education laws of States and communities should be so amended, developed, and extended that they shall apply to all children of school age, without exception, and provide for their training; further, that the laws should recognize the difference between the chronological age of a child and his maturity, and that the school-age limit of each individual child should be determined by requiring the child to meet physical and mental tests, even though the child be in years above the age standard; in other words, a child's actual age should be determined by physio-psychological data corresponding to the normal standard for the age limit required by law. All children or persons failing to meet such maturity test at the extreme school-age limit should remain under public supervision and control, either until they reach maturity or permanently.

The same principle should be the guide in determining whether a child is fit to be employed in any occupation. Not when a child is 14 or 16 years of age, but when he possesses the maturity of body and mind proper to a normal child of that age, should he be released from the guardianship of the State or the community. Child-labor laws should be so modified as to meet this requirement.

At no time before have all these things become so plainly recognized, and at no time before has there been such a remarkable activity on behalf of the problem of the exceptional child as in the year 1912. For this reason, I repeat it, it may well be called the turning point in the history of this movement.

CHAPTER IX.

A REVIEW OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN 1911-12.

By F. B. JENKS,

Specialist in charge of land-grant college statistics, Bureau of Education.

With questions of the tariff, the high cost of living, credit, and currency reform occupying the minds of the people, it is but natural that agricultural education should be widely discussed. They all have to do with the solution of country-life problems. It is intended in this chapter to indicate the trend of agricultural education and to call attention to some of the numerous agencies which are actively engaged in promoting it.

A few years ago agriculture was taught only in agricultural colleges. The nature-study idea for the elementary school was largely developed through the teachers of science, particularly biological sciences, in these institutions. One phase of nature study developed into the school garden and later into the study of agriculture in the upper grammar grades. At a still later date agriculture was introduced into the high school. As nature study in the elementary schools grew into agriculture, so the courses in nature study in the normal schools are being changed to meet the demand for teachers of agriculture. To-day these four branches of the educational system—the agricultural college, the normal school, the high school, and the elementary school—are teaching agriculture along different lines, but all toward the same final result—the betterment of rural conditions.

The high school is likely to become (if it is not already) the most important factor in agricultural education so far as strictly vocational teaching is concerned, but the agricultural college is naturally the leader in its development. The high school looks to the agricultural college not only for teachers but for subject matter, since all that is known of agriculture as an organized science or as a teachable subject has come through the efforts of these colleges, with their research laboratories and experiment stations. The work of these institutions is supplemented by the United States Department of Agriculture and the graduate school of agriculture.

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE.

In 1902 Thomas F. Hunt, then dean of the school of agriculture of Ohio State University, conceived the idea of a graduate school of agriculture to furnish the opportunity for somewhat extended discussion of topics of interest in agricultural science by the leading teachers or investigators in the field. His plans were carried out, and the first session was held under the auspices of the Ohio State University at Columbus, Ohio. Sessions have since been held under the auspices of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, as follows: 1906, at the University of Illinois; 1908, at Cornell University (New York); 1910, at Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanics Arts; and in 1912 at Michigan Agricultural College.

At the 1912 session, among other conferences held were those of college instruction in agriculture, secondary instruction in agriculture, and agricultural extension teaching. The enrollment of 180 represented 34 States, Porto Rico, and 4 foreign countries.

Most of the agricultural colleges also offer graduate work in agriculture. Courses are offered in 41 of these institutions leading to the master's degree, and 10 give the doctor's degree.

AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES.

As stated by President K. L. Butterfield, in his report to the trustees of the Massachusetts Agricultural College:

There are three main types of service which the college may render: Investigation, instruction, and extension service.

Investigation may be called the search for truth about agriculture and rural affairs; instruction, the incarnation of this truth in trained leadership; extension service, the dissemination or democratization of this truth—its distribution among all the people interested.

Thus the college has a threefold task, not three tasks, but one task to be fulfilled in these three fairly distinct methods or types of work.

Of these three phases of the work of agricultural education the most attention until very recently has been given to investigation, and the result is a vast amount of knowledge accumulated but comparatively little accomplished in either instruction or extension. There is still need for investigation, but the most urgent need is the placing of agricultural information in the hands of the farmers who are to receive the direct benefit from it.

INSTRUCTION.

Agriculture is taught in 67 institutions in the United States, including 17 separate schools for negroes, that are receiving Federal

aid under the land-grant act of 1862 and subsequent acts. Of the so-called agricultural colleges, only one, Massachusetts Agricultural College, is an exclusively agricultural college; 23 are colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts; and 26 are colleges or departments of universities. All of these institutions give courses in agriculture that are designed to prepare the boy for successful competition in one or more of the various lines of commercial agriculture. That they are succeeding is shown by the increasing number of agricultural college graduates who are returning to the farm and making it pay. Special education in agriculture has been proved not only so valuable but so essential to successful farming that the demand for agriculture in both the high school and the elementary school has become almost universal.

Ten of the agricultural colleges have courses specially designed for training teachers in agriculture; 23 have courses in psychology and general education; and 13 have departments of agricultural education which give courses in methods of teaching agriculture, as well as in general pedagogy. Several of these agricultural education departments are supervising the teaching of agriculture in high schools of the States.

It is generally agreed that the teachers of agriculture in the high school should have their special training for this work in the agricultural college. Although the land-grant institutions are offering such courses, the reports from these institutions show that a very small number of students are availing themselves of the opportunities. Courses are offered of varying lengths, from the summer course of four to nine weeks to a full four years' course. By far the largest number of teachers in these institutions who take the special courses for teachers are taking only the summer course.

Seven institutions reported 100 students in four-year teachers' training courses in agriculture in 1912; 2 institutions reported 32 students in two-year courses; 4 institutions reported 63 students in one-year courses; 11 institutions reported 1,698 in summer-school courses. This, however, does not give the total number of students who are preparing to teach agriculture. Several institutions offering courses in agricultural education do not list their students in these courses separately as teachers' training courses.

During the past year the following institutions added the special courses for training teachers as described:

Purdue University (Indiana).—A summer school for teachers, offering instruction in agriculture, domestic science, and manual training, was opened July 17; term, 5 weeks; enrollment, 87.

Massachusetts Agricultural College.—A system of major subjects was established, beginning with September, 1912. Each member of

the junior class will be required to elect one of the major subjects offered by the institution. Among the majors offered is one in agricultural education, which is designed for the special training of teachers of agriculture for the high school.

University of Minnesota.—The three-year course in the school of agriculture has been increased to five years and includes normal work in the fourth and fifth years, with special reference to rural school teaching.

State College of Washington.—A summer school of agriculture (for teachers) has been established in western Washington, at Puyallup, the only subjects taught being agriculture, home economics, and mechanic arts.

West Virginia University.—The term of the summer school has been lengthened from six to nine weeks.

EXTENSION SERVICE.

Forty-three institutions have directors of agricultural extension. They receive appropriations from the States in varying amounts from a few hundred dollars to fifty thousand dollars. In their efforts to reach the largest possible number their activities have been conducted along widely differing lines, such as lectures, publishing and distributing bulletins, correspondence courses, reading courses, traveling libraries, movable schools, educational trains, demonstration farms, educational exhibits at fairs and other places, moving pictures, supervision of agricultural teaching in both secondary and elementary schools, boys' and girls' clubs, etc.

It is estimated that above 24,000,000 copies of bulletins and circulars are issued annually by the State experiment stations and the Department of Agriculture. About one-fourth of the bulletins issued by the Bureau of Education in 1912 were on topics bearing directly on agricultural education.

According to the reports of the presidents of the agricultural colleges, there were 220 movable schools in 21 States in 1911-12. These schools varied in length from one to six days and covered practically all phases of agriculture and home economics. In all cases the things of most interest and importance to the local community were emphasized.

There were 93 educational trains reported in 31 States the same year. The attendance at the lectures and demonstrations given in this connection aggregated 1,121,943 (estimated by officials in charge of trains).

Supervision of agricultural teaching by the agricultural colleges is becoming more common each year. This has perhaps been most systematically developed in Porto Rico, where a plan has recently

been adopted which places the teaching of agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics in both secondary and elementary schools, under the direct supervision of the University of Porto Rico. This is made possible on the part of the university by using a large portion of the Federal appropriation (the so-called Nelson fund) for this purpose.

AGRICULTURE IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

According to the most reliable information obtainable, there were more than 2,000 high schools teaching agriculture in 1911-12. Of this number about 360 were giving courses of two or more years in length. This list includes 46 State schools of agriculture, 40 district schools, and 62 county schools. There are also 16 departments of agriculture in high schools reported.

The Bureau of Education gathered from 125 teachers of secondary-school agriculture some information concerning salaries received, theoretical training, and teaching experience. The following brief summary is indicative both of the demand for specially trained teachers and the increased salaries commanded by those so trained:

1. There has been a great increase during the past four years, not only in the number of secondary schools offering courses in agriculture, but in the number offering agriculture for two or more years.

2. A large majority of the latter schools employ men trained in the subject in agricultural colleges; whereas four years ago very few high schools had teachers with any more special preparation than that afforded by attending one or two sessions of a summer school. If the teacher in charge of a well-organized agricultural department has not attended an agricultural college for one or more years, he has usually supplemented a good scientific preparation in college with summer-school work in agriculture.

3. The most usual salary paid teachers with college agricultural training is \$1,200, and the average of all is about that figure.

4. Half the men teaching high-school agriculture taught it for the first time during the school year 1911-12. Most of these were graduated from agricultural colleges in 1910 or 1911.

5. The teachers without the training in college agriculture average as large a salary when they are high-school principals as the others; otherwise the average is much lower.

6. The length of teaching experience of all kinds, in the case of the men with college agriculture, is $3\frac{1}{2}$ years, as compared with 8 years for those with other training, though the former receive higher salaries.

7. The average yearly increase in the salaries of teachers with college agriculture has been \$158, as compared with \$110 for the other group, due in part to their ability to obtain good-paying principalships although having little experience in teaching. The former begin teaching agriculture at a salary \$50 higher than the latter.

8. Three-fourths of the teachers estimate that they are better paid on account of teaching agriculture, as follows: In general high schools about \$300 extra

a year, and in special agricultural schools about \$550 a year, more than they could otherwise earn.¹

Lack of properly trained teachers as reported from all parts of the United States presents the greatest problem to be met at the present time. It often becomes the duty of the science teacher with no special training, and perhaps no practical experience in farming, to teach agriculture. Often when well-trained teachers are secured they are asked to teach several other subjects. This is true not only in the high schools, but in the normal schools as well.

In the normal schools reporting courses in agriculture 18 teachers devote their entire time to this subject; 72 teach agriculture and nature study, science, or some other subject; 9 teach agriculture and two other subjects; 1 teaches agriculture, pedagogy, didactics, history of education, civics, child study, and school management. Some of these are well-organized and comprehensive courses, but a large number are inadequate to meet the needs of the prospective teacher.

Of the 500 summer schools of all classes reporting to this bureau, 113 gave courses in agriculture in 1912. While a few schools reporting courses in 1911 did not report such work in 1912, the increase in the number so reporting in some States was very marked, as, for example, Minnesota with 6 in 1911, 15 in 1912; Texas with 8 in 1911, 17 in 1912. While most of the courses in agriculture are intended for elementary-school teachers, there is a considerable increase each year in the number of courses designed for high-school teachers.

One of the newest forms of vocational agricultural education, and one that is proving very successful, is the part-time or project method adopted for the State-aided agricultural departments of high schools in Massachusetts. This scheme follows the recommendations of the special committee of the Massachusetts State Board of Education appointed to investigate the needs of agricultural education. The findings of this committee were discussed in a chapter on agricultural education in the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1911. This plan is now followed in the high schools at Hadley, Petersham, Northboro, and Harwich, and at Smith's Agricultural School, Northampton, Mass. Some idea of the success of this method is shown by the report of Mr. R. W. Stimson, State agent for agricultural education, who has supervision of this work. According to this report, out of a group of 25 boys (5 from each of the 5 schools) 2 earned more than \$300 each, 12 earned more than \$200 each, and only 3 earned less than \$100 from their home-project work in 1912. The total farm earnings for the 25 boys exceeded \$5,000. In "The Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Bulletin of the Board of Educa-

¹ Bull., 1913, No. 6: Agricultural Instruction in High Schools.

tion, 1912, No. 4," Mr. Stimson gives suggestions for school officers and agricultural-project study, from which the following is taken:

PRODUCTIVE WORK AND RELATED STUDY.

The project and part-time plan of vocational agricultural education embodies two distinct features. One is productive farm work, supervised by a special agricultural instructor, or group of agricultural instructors; the other is study directly related to that productive work. Both are essential, and for each careful provision must be made.

Of the two, it may, perhaps, prove to be an easier task for the special instructor to inspire and to direct competent agricultural production than to amplify and organize the training of his pupils so as to insure thoroughgoing study directly bearing upon their individual enterprises.

PROJECT STUDY SUITABLE FOR VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENTS IN SELECTED HIGH SCHOOLS.

(1) *State aid.*—The Massachusetts Legislature of 1911 provided State aid, to the amount of two-thirds of the special agricultural instructor's salary, for the maintenance of vocational agricultural departments in selected high schools. The project method of instruction is prescribed for such departments.

(2) *Necessary groupings.*—In order to enable one agricultural instructor to direct the project work and study of each of his pupils during a full half of the school time through a four-year course, groupings by years and projects like those following are necessary. Such groupings must hold during the fall and spring terms. Certain other studies, like those above stated as open to separate agricultural school pupils, may be taken during the winter and during the fall and spring terms; but, if taken, must be so timed as not to interfere with the agricultural project work and study.

Department project study.

School years ending 1912, 1914, and other even years.
First and second year pupils, one-half school time.

School years ending 1914, 1916, and other even years.
Third and fourth year pupils, one-half school time.

Agricultural Science and Projects applied to a given community:
Kitchen Gardening—vegetables, small fruits.
Ornamental Planting—shrubbery, flowering plants, lawns.
Farm Shop Work—making and repairing for home and school use—hotbeds, clod frames, etc.

Agricultural Science and Projects applied to a given community:
Farm Animals—types, breeding, management.
Farm Buildings—sanitation and conveniences, plans, construction, upkeep.
Farm Crops—for keeping the animals—rotations, balancing, cultivation, etc.
Farm Machines—and implements, their use and repair.

School years ending 1913, 1915, and other odd years.
First and second year pupils, one-half school time.

School years ending 1915, 1917, and other odd years.
Third and fourth year pupils, one-half school time.

Agricultural Science and Projects applied to the community:
Small Animals—poultry, sheep, swine, bees—types, breeding, management, rations, etc.
Buildings and Equipment—for small animals—plans, cost, etc.
Home-grown Crops—for small animals, kinds, quantities, seeds, soils, place in farm crop rotation, fertilizing, tillage, harvesting, storage.
Farm Shop Work and other construction.

Agricultural Science and Projects applied to given community:
Fruit Growing—orcharding and small fruits not before dealt with, propagation, cultivation, packing, etc.
Market Gardening—markets, soils, seeds, fertilizers, tillage.
Buildings and Appliances—plans, devices, implements and machines—cost, use and upkeep.
Farm Shop Work and other construction.

(3) *Agriculture first.*—The regulations governing these departments further require that when conflict is unavoidable, or when, as at planting time, continuous application for a number of consecutive days to his projects becomes necessary, all else must yield to the pupil's proper agricultural instruction, no matter at what cost for the time being to his other studies.

Productive projects fundamental.—First and without fail in vocational education should come the projects termed "productive."

The scale of the improvement and experimental projects may be modest. The scale of the productive projects must be extended, occupy as much as possible of the time, and engage as much as possible of the energy of the pupil. Entering upon a productive project should be an indication of the pupil's determination to go just as far as he can in any given year, not only toward learning how to become a self-respecting and self-supporting producer of farm products, but also toward putting that knowledge into practice.

Vocational agricultural education, in short, means, if it means anything, the constant interworking of ideas and action. It means the educational unity of two practically simultaneous processes, the processes of earning and learning.

The logic of making the productive projects fundamental is the logic of life. First, man must provide his subsistence; next, a surplus for barter, sale, or other use. Then out of his surplus he may rightfully take risks, or make non-productive investments of time or capital. And this holds true no matter how slight the risk nor how modest the nonproductive outlay.

Happily, projects primarily productive, involving, as they must do, considerations of quality no less than those of quantity, are not without vital elements of training in attractiveness, order, and fitness. Moreover, the boy's success in his enterprises aimed at profit is more than likely to be directly proportionate to his daring enlistment under the leadership of the newer agriculture. Productive projects alone, therefore, may contribute to the education of the pupil something of those elements which are the more direct aims of projects termed "experimental" and "improvement."

The agricultural instructor, in laying out or in approving projects to be undertaken by his pupils, will, therefore, make no mistake. His primary concern must be vocational agricultural education through productive projects. Productive projects may, in any given year, and at a pinch in all years, be taught to the exclusion of all others. "Improvement" and "experimental" projects, where found feasible, are desirable. "Productive" projects are fundamental.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE AGRICULTURAL INSTRUCTOR.

(1) *Projects.*—Suit the size of the project to the capacity of the pupil. Then require good work.

(a) *Not too small.*—Speed up the boy's work by making his project big enough to require attack and dispatch for its competent execution. Make it so big as to avoid all tendency toward habits of dawdling and pottering. Let it be big enough to arouse his enthusiasm by making the profit he may reasonably expect to get appeal to him as being a real prize. Make the project big enough so that a competing job shall not get the boy away from school. In short, let each boy's project be such that it shall serve not an avocational but a vocational end of commanding importance.

(b) *Not too big.*—At the same time do not permit a boy to undertake more than he can carry out in a thoroughly workmanlike manner. If slow work is likely to be finical, fussy, and uneconomic, slovenly work is discreditable. Good habits of work should be formed and bad habits either avoided or sharply

corrected. Projects just within the grasp of the boy may be, and should be required to be, capably carried out.

(2) *Project clothes.*—Require that all project work shall be done in working clothes. Provide lockers for the ordinary school clothes and shoes and require a change of dress when project work is to be done on the school premises. Provide, also, conveniences for cleaning up after the work is done.

This should be looked upon as a perfectly reasonable rule, the nonenforcement of which would be absurd and must make the project work appear ridiculous.

A uniform course of study was adopted for the district agricultural schools of Georgia. This was recommended to be put into operation at the opening of the schools in 1912. This course, which is given below, offers less of the vocational and more of the general high-school subjects:

Curriculum of Georgia congressional district agricultural schools.

(Numerals indicate number of 40-minute periods a week.)

FIRST YEAR.

All students.	Boys.	Girls.		
English.....	6	Agriculture:.....		
United States History.....	4	General.....	3	Home economics:.....
Arithmetic.....	2	Rural school.....	1	Sewing, textiles, and bas- ketry (2d term).....
Geography.....	4	Poultry.....	2	3
Penmanship.....	1	Laboratory.....	3	
Freehand drawing (1st term).....	3	Woodwork (2d term).....	3	

SECOND YEAR.

English.....	6	Agriculture:.....	Home economics:.....
General history.....	3	Stock, breeds.....	Cooking.....
Arithmetic.....	2	Stock judging.....	Foods and household hy- giene.....
Algebra.....	3	Dairying.....	2
Biology and sanitation.....	4	Farm crops.....	Sewing.....
		Forge work.....	3

THIRD YEAR.

English.....	5	Agriculture:.....	Home economics:.....
English history.....	3	Feeding.....	Dressmaking.....
Algebra, plane geometry.....	5	Horticulture, with labora- tory work.....	Household management and nursing.....
Physics.....	6	Mechanical drawing.....	Millinery, 6 months.....
Teachers' course ¹	3		Cooking.....

FOURTH YEAR.

English.....	5	Agriculture:.....	Home economics:.....
Civics.....	3	Soils.....	Cooking, 6 months.....
Plane geometry.....	3	Fertilizers.....	Household arts and decora- tion, 6 months.....
Chemistry.....	6	Farm management.....	6
Teachers' course ²	2	Landscaping.....	Dietetics.....

¹ May be substituted for English history.

² May be substituted for landscaping or for some domestic science.

The farm-school idea is gaining rapidly in popularity. In 1907 Holly Springs School, in Wake County, N. C., began the cultivation of its school grounds. In 1912 there were 17 schools that utilized the school grounds for growing of farm crops. An average of more than \$100 per school was realized from the $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ acres cultivated. The money received for the crop was used to lengthen the school term or otherwise increase its efficiency.

A large part of the labor was done by the pupils, but the parents assisted, and thus made it a community enterprise. Usually the best farmer of the community was chosen as superintendent, and every effort was made to make the school farm a demonstration of the best type of farming. Not only did the farmers come together to plant, cultivate, and harvest the crop, but night meetings were organized, where general farm problems were discussed.¹

A law passed by the North Carolina Legislature and approved March 3, 1911, made provision for "county farm-life schools" for the training of boys and girls for farm life and home making. The law requires that these schools be located in the rural districts, with a farm of not less than 25 acres, with necessary barns, also dormitory accommodations for 25 boys and 25 girls. The State pays \$2,500 toward the maintenance of these schools, when approved by the State board of education. One county has such a school in operation and another has plans under consideration, a favorable vote having already been taken.

COOPERATION AMONG FARMERS.

Cooperative societies among farmers have been largely a series of failures until within the last two or three decades—failures largely due to distrust of one another and to lack of knowledge of best methods. Cooperation in the United States has been influenced by the recent marked success of such organizations among farmers in most European countries, which has been especially notable in Denmark, Italy, France, and Germany. Immigrants from these countries are prominent in the development of such organizations in the United States. This is particularly true in the Middle West, where cooperative creameries and elevators are common.

Cooperation among farmers is usually considered from the monetary standpoint, yet it is fairly possible that its chief significance is not that of economic gain. While it is true that the economic motive has been the dominant influence in the organization of the various cooperative societies, and while this has been fully justified by the cash return, it is possible that the cooperative influence of the farmer as a man and as a citizen is much more important.

These organizations develop the cooperative spirit, which is one of the first essentials of education. They create interest in farming and farm methods and develop enthusiasm in community enterprises which finds expression in good roads, schools, churches, law enforcement, needed legislation, the beautifying of farm buildings, etc.—a general education of country people that may realize a new conception of community consciousness and fuller citizenship.

¹ Bulletin, 1912, No. 28: Cultivating the School Grounds in Wake County, N. C.

THE GRANGE.

Education has been an important factor in the life of most permanent farmers' organizations. This is instanced in the history of the grange (officially known as the Order of Patrons of Husbandry). Its purposes are fraternal, social, educational, political, and financial. Organized in 1867, it grew very rapidly, particularly from 1873-1875, during which three years more than 20,000 subordinate granges were organized. During this period the work of the grange was largely political and financial. The decline was almost as rapid as the rise, and in 1880 it was considered dead, except in New England. The revival began about 1890, when the social and educational features became prominent and appealed to the better class of farmers. Since that time they have received greater emphasis and the growth has been a slow but constant process, until to-day the grange has come to a recognized position as the largest and most influential national organization of farmers, with 30,000 subordinate granges, and more than 1,000,000 members.

The educational feature forms a large part of the evening's program, and is known as the "lecturer's hour." Not only are series of lectures on agricultural topics arranged, but often a systematic form of study of some agricultural problem is carried out. In some instances classes are formed and college work is undertaken through correspondence courses. It would be difficult to estimate the influence of the grange upon the introduction of agriculture into the public-school system, as well as the part it has played in the general awakening of the people to the needs of the rural school. Since 1878 the grange has urged that agriculture should be taught in the public schools. A Massachusetts granger says:

Of the four great causes for which the grange of Massachusetts is now fighting, three bear directly on the education of the youth.

The following excerpt is taken from an article on "The educational value of the grange," by Miss Jennie Buell, lecturer, Michigan State Grange:¹

By far the larger number of men and women now operating farms have had scarcely a common-school education, with no special training in agriculture or home economics; yet many of them are more than slightly familiar with the scientific side of their work. We must look for the source of such knowledge outside the accepted educational institutions. These people have been educated in one or more of the great schools out of school—of which the grange is one—whose curricula is not so formal as the others, but no less real.

"I shall never forget," one of these grange-educated persons has often been heard to say, "the hour that it really came to me that I was connected with

¹ *Business America*, vol. 13, No. 1, pp. 50-54.

an educational institution through my grange membership. I sat with hundreds of other attendants upon a national grange session, all of us then guests at a State university. The body of the auditorium was filled with grange people, while the gallery was occupied by students. On the platform sat the university president and the masters of a score of State granges. The president's address was excellent, though I have forgotten it, but it was when the soldierly master of the national grange, with clearly-cut thought and forceful language laid bare the vast field of grange educational opportunity, that such a thrill ran over me as I had never known before. Never since, as before, have I so sorely envied college students because they have what I have not had."

The grange was instituted among farmers 46 years ago. During these years it has carried on quietly a powerful work in the way of discovering and training leaders among its own people. Previous to its organization a gathering of country people was presided over by a lawyer or minister. The grange required that it be manned by one of its own, and so, stumblingly, with halting and embarrassment, the training process went on until, to-day, there is scarcely a corporal's guard to recall the days when farmers did not conduct their own meetings.

AGRICULTURAL FAIRS.

Agricultural fairs have been utilized for some time by agricultural colleges as a means of carrying agricultural extension both by exhibits and demonstrations, and in more recent years by lectures as well. The benefit is mutual; the fair furnishes a ready means for reaching the people with agricultural information, and the college has strengthened the fair associations by its educational exhibits and the skilled demonstrators and expert judges.

About three-fourths of the State institutions regularly send exhibits to county and State agricultural fairs in charge of demonstrators, who explain the work of the institution and answer questions. Some institutions have as many as 9 or 10 demonstrators at a single fair. More than 100 fairs had educational exhibits from agricultural colleges last year.

Among the advantages claimed by the institutions from their exhibition at these fairs are:

- (1) Opportunity to meet farmers personally and explain the work of the institution.
- (2) Opportunity to secure cooperation in demonstration work.
- (3) Opportunity for the college to conduct agricultural schools and short courses and demonstrations while the exhibition is in progress.
- (4) Opportunity to initiate new movements for the improvement of agriculture.
- (5) Opportunity for the education of fair managers in the conduct of agricultural exhibitions.
- (6) Opportunity for collecting into one place the results of field demonstrations for the inspection of the public.
- (7) Providing a place for exhibiting the results of contest work by school children and country youth.

(8) Enabling the college and station to secure the names and addresses of representative farmers and of young people with whom to correspond in disseminating agricultural information, and in securing cooperation in projects for rural improvement.

The significance of the possibilities in this field may be more readily understood when we consider the fact that there are more than 2,500 fairs and exhibitions devoted to agriculture and related subjects.

THE FARMERS' INSTITUTES.

Farmers' institutes constitute another form of college extension work. They have been in active existence only about 30 years; yet the number of sessions held during 1912 was almost 16,000. From the beginning the speakers have been largely agricultural college and experiment station men, and they have conducted a continuous campaign of education. The institute worker has not only advocated better farming, but better schools for farmers' children. Every problem that confronts the farmer or that has to do with rural life finds a place on the farmers' institute program. While the farmers' institute was organized solely for the farmer's benefit, the reaction has had a great deal to do in shaping policies of the agricultural college and experiment station. In these meetings the farmer has spoken freely his idea as to what the college should do for him.

WOMEN'S CLUBS.

Women's clubs have done much to quicken the intellectual life of the communities in which they have flourished. The activities of women's clubs in the field of agricultural education are particularly noticeable in rural towns and villages of Massachusetts. Rural women's clubs are turning their attention to the improvement and beautification of the country and the country home, and notwithstanding the claim that "country women prefer the sewing society to the literary society," they have organized lecture courses that deal with practical farm-life problems. The extension departments of the agricultural colleges are frequently asked to furnish the lecturers for women's club meetings.

"CHAUTAUQUAS."

The Chautauqua movement becomes each year a more decided factor in the education of the farmer. The programs, which in the early history of the movement consisted principally of Bible study and recreation, have been broadened year by year until they have become varied and inclusive. Special features dealing with farm life are becoming more popular and more frequent, and it is now a common occurrence to find these programs offering courses in

stock judging, poultry raising, soils, seed testing, household economy, etc. Scores of such gatherings are being organized each year, and the favorite field is the rural district. Over 500 local Chautauquas were held the past season in Nebraska, Iowa, Illinois, Kansas, and Missouri, more than 100 being held in towns with an average population of 500. In some cases, notably Clarinda, Iowa, boys' and girls' clubs have been formed in connection with the Chautauquas, and exhibitions and demonstrations of their work have been made a special feature.

AGRICULTURAL PRESS.

Georgia State College of Agriculture has one-third more students this year than last, in spite of short crops. The sudden jump in interest over the opportunities offered by scientific courses may be traced to three sources: (1) The persistent propaganda of the daily and farm press. (2) The Government farm demonstration work, in which the college has itself cooperated. (3) The "college on wheels," operated by the college and by different railroads, that has penetrated every portion of Georgia, carrying the gospel of scientific and diversified agriculture.

While perhaps not all would assign the agricultural press first place, as noted in the above quotation from an agricultural paper, there is no doubt of the increasing influence of these periodicals. The 500 periodicals devoted to agriculture, with their present circulation, would, if properly distributed, give several copies monthly to each individual engaged in agriculture. The amount of agricultural literature for free distribution is enormous, having more than doubled in the last five years.

The dailies are giving an increasingly large amount of space to discussions on agricultural topics and to reports of agricultural meetings. This has led to the employment of press agents or bureaus by some of the agricultural colleges, whose duties are to put into concise, clear statements, and in form that may be used by newspapers, the current work of the institution and notices and reports of agricultural meetings held under the auspices of the college.

STATE LEGISLATION.

Only 14 State legislatures were in session in 1912. Among those the following legislation bearing on agricultural education is noted:

Arizona.—Each high school employing teachers that meet the qualifications fixed by the State board of education and providing suitable classrooms and laboratory facilities, land, and equipment according to regulations established by said board of education, shall receive State aid for teaching agriculture and other vocational pursuits, not to exceed \$2,500 per annum; but in no case shall the State aid exceed one-half of the total sum actually expended on such course, which must continue not less than eight months each year. Normal schools shall participate upon identical terms with high schools.

Kentucky.—An appropriation of \$50,000 is made to Eastern Kentucky Normal and \$25,000 to Western Kentucky Normal, "a necessary part of which shall be used to meet as far as possible the pressing demands for agricultural instruction and instruction in domestic science."

Massachusetts.—Of the amount given to the agricultural fairs, \$200 is set aside for premiums on animals and farm crops raised and for excellence in stock judging and for general premiums, open to youths under 18.

Mississippi.—Annual appropriation of \$1,500 is made to each county agricultural high school, provided that those schools having over 30 boarding students shall receive \$2,000, and those having over 40 boarding students shall receive \$2,500.

New Mexico.—Provides for a State director of industrial education. The State board of education is authorized to prescribe and adopt a course of study in industrial education.

Rhode Island.—One-half of cost of maintenance of manual training and household arts courses that are approved by the State board of education will be paid by the State.

INDIANA COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

A committee of seven was appointed in accordance with a legislative act approved March 4, 1911—

to investigate the needs of education in the different industries of Indiana and how far the needs are met by existing institutions and what new form of educational effort may be advisable to meet those needs.

This commission found that:

The shop has never been very successful as a schoolmaster. The principal part of education to be gained in a shop is skill in processes. The schools must supplement the shop and the two must cooperate to prepare the worker properly. But the actual training by the school must be given by teachers who have had success and experience as well as adequate knowledge.

* * * * *

The investigations of the commission disclosed that the people are not only ready but anxious for the enlargement of the school work, so as to include the best possible preparation for life work for all people, whether they earn their living with their heads or their hands. Farmers, employees, employers, labor leaders, educators, and social workers who appeared before the commission advocated strongly that definite, whole-hearted plans be made. The problem which confronted them was not that it should or should not be done, but how it could be done effectively.

The State board of education has partially opened the way for high schools to introduce vocational subjects and at the same time conform to the requirements for college entrance. The colleges are recognizing the change made in the high-school curriculum and are giving credits for such work. Some chance is thus given to the students to pursue industrial subjects without fear that if they later decide to go to college they would lack the qualifications for entrance.

* * * * *

The largest problem in carrying out industrial and agricultural education was found to be in the lack of teachers trained to do the work. If the vocational subjects are to find and hold the place that is due them in the common

schools of the State, the teachers must be educated to handle them more effectively than they have been able to handle such subjects in the past.

The beginnings of such preparation have been made. It has been demonstrated that teachers can be supplied on a small scale and the commission believes that adequate provisions will soon furnish adequately equipped teachers for a State-wide system of vocational education.

The report of this committee contains an excellent summary of the work of the committee and constitutes a valuable addition to the literature upon the subject of industrial education. Their recommendations, which have recently been incorporated into law, are as follows:

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE INDIANA COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL AND AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION TO THE STATE LEGISLATURE.

I. That school authorities in cities, towns, and townships be given power to establish and maintain such vocational schools and departments for industrial, domestic science, and agricultural education as their local situation may warrant, and levy a tax to support the same.

II. That State aid equal in amount to two-thirds the sum expended in instruction in vocational and technical subjects and such other related subjects as are necessary to complete well-rounded courses in industrial, domestic science, and agricultural schools or departments as are approved by the State board of education be given to the cities, towns, and townships supporting such vocational schools or departments. Such aid to be granted only for vocational work for pupils above 14, and the courses to be of less than college grade and designed to meet the vocational needs of those who are able to profit by the instruction offered.

III. That the State board of education include three persons of known interest in and sympathy with vocational education, including a representative of employers and of employees; that the superintendent of public instruction be the president and executive officer of the board; and that the board be relieved of the detail work of inspection of high schools by the appointment of a high-school inspector.

IV. That the State superintendent, with the approval of the State board of education, appoint a deputy to work under the superintendent in the supervision of industrial education, at a salary to be fixed by the board, and who shall be removable by the board only for cause.

V. That the State superintendent make arrangements with Purdue University by which some person actively connected with the agricultural work of Purdue shall be engaged in a dual capacity in supervising agricultural education as an agent of the State superintendent of public instruction and as an assistant at Purdue.

VI. That the teaching of agriculture in the rural elementary and high schools, industrial work in city and town schools, and domestic science in all elementary and high schools be required in such form as may be outlined as a minimum for each by the State board of education.

VII. In view of the wide difference in the kind of preparation and experience required for teachers of different vocational subjects and the difficulty of securing competent instructors in practical as well as theoretical training, such teachers should be subject to a separate and distinct system of tests and certification, and the board of education should be authorized to pass upon the

qualifications of teachers for vocational schools either by formal certification or as a feature of the work of the school.

That all teachers of elementary agriculture, domestic science, or industrial work in schools other than those approved by the State board and securing State aid shall be required to pass an examination in such subjects by the beginning of the school year 1915.

VIII. That children between 14 and 16 years be required to attend school unless regularly employed. That every child going to work secure first a certificate from the school authorities stating that he is of the required age and that he has completed the fifth grade or its equivalent. That the certificate be kept by his employer, and when he leaves his employ be returned by the employer to the official issuing it.

IX. That when the school authorities have established vocational courses approved by the State board for boys and girls from 14 to 16 and have formally accepted the provisions of the act permitting it they may require every boy and girl from 14 to 16 who is employed to return to the day school for instruction for at least five hours per week, employers to be required to allow time off for such instruction.

X. That whenever courses in domestic science of practical value have been established the school authorities shall require girls to take such courses at some time in the elementary schools, and no girls under 16 years of age should be allowed to leave the schools who have not had such courses.

XI. That contracts of apprenticeship shall specify that the child shall be given at least five hours per week of instruction in the day schools in English, citizenship, physiology and hygiene, use of safety devices, and such other subjects as may be approved by the State board of education.

XII. Whenever the county board of education of any county shall determine to establish a county agent for the purpose of advancing agriculture, domestic science, and industrial work, and the necessary appropriation has been made by the county council to provide for the maintenance of such agent, State aid shall be granted equal to one-half the salary of such agent, but not to exceed \$1,000 to any one county, so long as the work of the county agent is approved by the State board of education. Such agent to be appointed by Purdue University with the approval of the county board of education and the State board of education.

The county agent shall cooperate with farmers' institutes, farmers' clubs, and other agricultural organizations in the county and conduct practical farm demonstrations, boys' and girls' clubs and contest work, and other movements for the betterment of country life, and shall on the request of the county superintendent give aid and advice to the superintendent or teachers of the county in agricultural instruction.

XIII. That wherever the schools of a township have been consolidated a full course in agriculture be offered, modified to meet the vocational needs of the community, and a fair-sized demonstration farm be operated by the school for practical instruction.

That where consolidation has not taken place the township may provide demonstration plats in connection with each school or a central demonstration farm. The director should be an itinerant teacher, giving instruction in all the schools of the township and supervising the teaching of agriculture in the grades.

Two or more townships should be authorized to combine, wherever feasible, for the establishment of a demonstration farm or plats and maintenance of schools or an itinerant teacher.

XIV. That the agricultural extension department of Purdue University be liberally supported, to the end that the present practical work in agriculture and domestic science be extended and enlarged and that facilities be provided for active cooperation with the agricultural work to be established in the schools. That Indiana University and the State Normal be liberally supported in the preparation of teachers of domestic science, industrial or agricultural subjects, and the investigation of the educational problems connected with vocational education.

XV. That the public libraries should cooperate with the schools and the industries in providing sufficient material for extension work. Every library should be a center for industrial workers, where the literature of their craft should be available in convenient form for serious study. Libraries in the rural districts should do a like service for agricultural workers.

XVI. That the State charitable and correctional institutions which maintain industrial, domestic science, and agricultural instruction be under the supervision of the State board of education in an advisory way as to such instruction.

XVII. That facilities be provided for vocational guidance by a survey of the vocational possibilities of the community, by a central bureau of information and investigation, and by concerted action by teachers to guide youths to the wise choice of a vocation.

CHAPTER X.

PROGRESS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

By C. A. PROSSER,

Secretary National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education.

The years 1912 and 1913 have been harvest time for the cause of vocational education in the United States. More advancement has been made in this period than in any previous five years since the beginning of the movement on this side of the water. The ground gained will be discussed under the heads of—I. Progress in legislation. II. Progress in public opinion. III. Progress in the recognition of principles and policies. IV. Progress in localities.

I. PROGRESS IN LEGISLATION.

It is the purpose of this statement to point out, in a general way, both what was accomplished in the year 1912, and the legislation which is under consideration in different States of the Union for the year 1913.

LEGISLATION FOR 1912.

Wisconsin.—On the 1st of January, 1912, the Wisconsin law went into effect requiring all employed children between 14 and 16 who had not graduated from the elementary school to attend part-time and continuation schools and courses not less than five and not more than eight hours per week.

Massachusetts.—The Massachusetts act of 1911, codifying and revising the vocational education law, was amended by chapter 106 of the acts of 1912. Up to the passage of this act, State aid for evening instruction was confined to those classes which were made up entirely of those who were employed during the daytime in occupations for which the work of the evening class gave more or less direct preparation. Notwithstanding a strong feeling that evening classes in household arts for factory girls, who are not employed in the home during the day, were greatly needed and should receive encouragement, it was impossible to aid them by State grants. The act of 1912 (ch. 106) extended aid from the treasury of the Commonwealth to classes in the household arts, approved by the board of education, for women, no matter how engaged during the day.

The Page and Lever bills.—These two measures provided Federal aid for vocational education. The Lever bill—House 22871—for extension teaching in agriculture to mature farmers, \$3,500,000 annually, and the Page bill—Senate No. 3—a final total of \$14,000,000 annually for extension teaching in agriculture for farmers, branch testing and breeding stations, preparation of teachers for service in vocational schools, and for vocational schools giving instruction through all-day, part-time, continuation, and evening classes for the farm, the home, and the shop.

The Lever bill having passed the House, and the Page bill having passed the Senate, the inability of the friends of these two measures to agree upon a satisfactory compromise in Joint Conference Committee between the two Houses in the closing hours of the last Congress caused both bills to die in conference. The working out of this problem raises questions as to the relationship of the National Government to the States in the field of education which will be of interest not only to educators, but to every student of our constitutional Government.

VOCATIONAL LEGISLATION, 1913.

Indiana.—The commission on industrial and agricultural education for this State, appointed in 1911, presented to the legislature, in connection with an excellent report on the subject of vocational education, a series of bills which were made laws practically without opposition.

The compulsory education laws of the State were codified and some excellent changes made in the machinery for their enforcement. A State board of truancy, consisting of the State superintendent of public instruction, a member of the State board of education, and the secretary of the State board of charities was created to enforce the new law. It will be impossible within the limits of this statement to even point out all the praiseworthy features of this codification. No child under 16 years of age is permitted to enter employment until he has passed the fifth grade in the common schools. All children between 14 and 16 years of age must be either in school or at work. When they lose their employment, they are required to return to school.

In what is probably the most comprehensive statute yet enacted, the Indiana Legislature established a State system of vocational education, giving State aid for training in industries, agriculture, and domestic science, through all-day, part-time, continuation, and evening schools. This work is to be carried on either in separate schools or in departments of regular high schools. In every case the local control is vested in the regular board of education for the commu-

nity and the laws are to be administered as a whole by the State board of education.

The meaning of such terms as "vocational education," "industrial education," "agricultural education," "domestic science," "evening class," "part-time class," as used in the law, is defined in the first section, and the definitions themselves are, with some slight modifications, taken from the Massachusetts act of 1911.

An "approved school or department" is defined to mean an organization, under a separate director or head, of courses, pupils and teachers approved by the State board of education. In a sense, when the approved work is given under the same roof with other public school activities, the work remains separate, in order that it may realize its dominant purpose of fitting for wage earning.

The instruction which is to receive State aid is to be of less than college grade and designed to meet the vocational needs of children over 14 years of age who seek preparation for their work, most of whom come to the vocational schools without having finished the elementary school course. Attendance upon such day or part-time classes is restricted to persons over 14 and under 25 years of age; and upon evening classes to persons over 17 years of age. The State board of education, which is charged with the administration of the act, has been reorganized so that seven of its members must be professional educators and five may be laymen. Two of these laymen must be citizens of prominence, three of them shall be actively interested in and of known sympathy with vocational education. One of these last three shall be a representative of employees and one of employers.

The State superintendent of public instruction is made the executive officer, and a deputy superintendent is to be placed under him, in charge of industrial and domestic science education. The agricultural work is to be directed by another deputy or agent who shall combine with his duties as assistant at Purdue University, the agricultural and mechanical college of the State, that of supervising the agricultural education under the State superintendent.

Local communities are required to supply the plant and equipment for carrying on the work which, when it has been approved by the State board of education, is to be reimbursed out of the State treasury to the amount of two-thirds the salary of each teacher giving instruction either in vocational or technical subjects.

In order to secure the benefit of the knowledge and cooperation of the layman, local school authorities are required to appoint, subject to the approval of the State board of education, advisory committees composed of members representing local trades and industries, whose duty it shall be to counsel with and advise the board and other officials in the conduct of the affairs of the school.

A special tax of 1 cent on each \$100 of taxable property in the State is authorized. Any part of the fund remaining at the close of the fiscal year, not allotted to schools under the act, is to be placed in a permanent fund for the support and encouragement of vocational education.

Pennsylvania.—A bill is now pending before the Pennsylvania Senate which passed the House on the 10th day of March, 1913, by a vote of 182 to 2, and which seems certain to become a law at an early date. This bill is very similar to the Massachusetts act of 1911 and to the Indiana act of the present year. Such terms as "vocational education," "industrial education," "agricultural education," are defined in the same way. The State board of education administers the act, with the State superintendent of public instruction as the executive officer.

The schools established give training in agriculture, trades, industries, and home economics, in day, part-time, and evening classes. Local communities are required to build and equip the school. When their work has been approved by the State board of education the community is reimbursed in an amount equal to two-thirds the salary of the instructors.

The regular board of education is in charge of the local schools. They are required to appoint advisory committees composed of members representing local trades, industries, and occupations, to aid them in making the work practical and effective.

New Jersey.—A bill creating a State system for vocational education is on its way through the New Jersey Legislature and will doubtless be passed. In general, this measure is similar to those of Massachusetts, Indiana, and Pennsylvania. The terms employed are similarly defined in the opening section. The work is to be administered by the State board of education and local boards of education, and may be carried on in either approved schools or departments; these departments must consist of separate courses, pupils, and teachers.

Advisory committees are not provided for in the act, but it is expected that these will be required under authority conferred upon the board of education by previous legislation. The State aid for schools which have met with the approval of the board of education is to be equal to one-half the amount appropriated for the city or district for the current expenses of the schools. Not more than \$10,000 is to be given by the State as reimbursement to any one school or department, and not more than \$80,000 is to be expended under the terms of the act.

Connecticut.—In 1909 this State established a system of State trade schools administered by the State board of education, through its

secretary, as the executive officer. Two schools have been established under this act—one at New Britain and one at Bridgeport.

A law is now before the Connecticut Assembly which bids fair to pass, extending the scope of the act of 1909.¹ The State board of education is authorized to establish part-time, continuation, and evening schools, and the school authorities in every city, town, or district are empowered to establish all-day, part-time, or evening schools, giving instruction in trades, useful occupations, and vocations. In such cases the local community must supply the plant and the equipment. When the work has been approved by the board of education, the State shall pay one-half the expenses of instruction, not to exceed in any case \$50 per scholar in average attendance. The State board of education and local authorities are required to appoint advisory committees composed of employers and employees to give advice and assistance in the operation of these schools.

When part-time and continuation classes are established by local authorities they are empowered to make the attendance upon such classes compulsory upon any or all children between 14 and 18 years of age who are not attending other schools. Such attendance shall be required for not less than 340 hours per year. Both parent and employer are already responsible for this attendance.

New York.—By the act of 1910.² a system of State aided vocational schools was established to be administered by the State board of education and local boards of education through the State. A law now pending, which seems certain to pass, extends the grants by the State, from day schools of various kinds giving training in agriculture, home economics, and trades and industries, to part-time, continuation, and evening schools as well. The aid is increased from \$500 for the first teacher employed in a vocational school, and \$250 for each additional teacher, to two-thirds the salary of the first teacher and one-third the salary of each additional teacher. On the new basis, this aid will amount to about 28 per cent of the operating expenses of the school in larger centers, and about 39 per cent in rural communities; the remainder of the cost of maintenance being made by the local communities. An additional aid of \$200 is given in some cases for the salary of instructors in agriculture in rural schools, so that they may be employed 11 months during the year, and thus be able to supervise summer work on the home farms of the pupils.

Another law which will doubtless receive favorable consideration at the present session, authorizes local communities to establish part-time and continuation schools and to require permit children, so called, between 14 and 16 years of age, who have not graduated from the elementary school, to attend for from four to eight hours a week,

¹ Ch. 85, Laws 1909.

² Article 72 of ch. 16; revised laws of 1910.

between 8 a. m. and 5 p. m., for not less than 36 weeks per year. This is purely a local option measure, putting into the hands of the local board of education the power to extend the compulsory education law in this way.

In cities of the first and second class, permit boys between 14 and 16 have been required to attend evening schools. Under this proposed legislation, it is possible for these cities to substitute attendance upon part-time and continuation classes during the day, as described in the foregoing, in place of such evening attendance.

Illinois.—Two bills are now pending before the Illinois Legislature, one known as the Blair bill and one known as the Cooley bill. The former proposes to carry on, with State aid, vocational education through the regular public schools of the State, and the latter through a separate State board of control and a separate local board of control, entirely independent of the regular public school system. The former is sometimes known as the "unit" system and the latter as the "dual" system. Every circumstance seems to indicate that neither of these bills will pass at the present session, and therefore they need not be discussed here, as they do not seem to represent prospective legislation.

Washington.—A bill is now pending before the Washington Legislature, which does not seem likely to pass at this session, modeled on the same lines as what is known as the "Cooley" or "dual" system bill of Illinois. Inasmuch as the intent here is to discuss only actual and prospective legislation this measure will not be treated here.

Massachusetts.—The act of 1911, chapter 471, is likely to be amended so as to authorize school committees, with the approval of the State board of education, to require every child between 14 and 16 years of age who is regularly employed not less than six hours a day to attend school at the rate of not less than four hours per week during the school year. The course of study for these children must be approved by the board of education. The attendance must be during the daytime between 7 o'clock in the morning and 6 in the evening of any working day or days.

Another measure which will probably become a law raises the compulsory school age from 14 to 15 for all children and for illiterates from 16 to 17. Attendance on a vocational school of children 14 years of age is accepted as school attendance.

Rhode Island.—Chapter 845 of the acts of 1912 grants State aid to the amount of one-half the operating expenses to towns carrying on instruction in agriculture and training in the mechanic and other industrial arts which are approved as to equipment, instruction, expenditure, supervision, and conditions of attendance by the State board of education. The work of the manual training high schools and other secondary schools maintaining manual training depart-

ments is specifically exempted from State grants under this act. Five thousand dollars is appropriated to meet the allotments of money under the act.

New Mexico.—It adopted a law, chapter 52, acts of 1912, which, while it does not grant money out of the State treasury for the benefit of vocational schools, did empower the State board of education to prescribe and adopt a course of study in industrial education for the public schools; required the teaching of this course in the schools and authorized the appointment by the State superintendent of public instruction of a State director of industrial education, whose duties were defined in the statutes and whose compensation was appropriated.

II. PROGRESS IN PUBLIC OPINION.

The press fairly teems with editorials and signed articles, which indicate an overwhelming sentiment in favor of enlarging and extending the scope of education in this country to include the training of the great mass of our workers for wage-earning occupations of every kind. The friends of antichild labor have joined hands with the friends of industrial education to use the part-time and continuation schools both as a means of reducing the number of hours of employment of children under 16 years of age, and as a means of giving these children, so long neglected, both a general and practical education which they need as their way out to happiness and efficiency. Social workers advocate vocational training as the largest factor in a program for increasing the efficiency of the individual worker, to the end that he may earn a better wage and have a higher standard of living. Economists declare that only by making the individual a better workman can wages keep pace with the rising tide of prices and the struggle for shorter hours, and the minimum wage succeed on a permanent basis. Thoughtful statesmen recognize that only by a nation-wide system of practical education, a step which Germany took 30 years ago, will we be able to maintain our present position in the markets of the world. Employers and employees are beginning to find common ground in a mutual effort to conserve the skill of the American workingman. Educators see in the movement for vocational education a means to reduce the waste pile of human life, to reach groups of children long neglected, and to democratize the public schools in the country in a true sense.

Practically every great national organization in this country—commercial, industrial, social, economic, and educational—has voiced the sentiment of its State and local branches everywhere, both by resolutions and more or less active work, in behalf of this great cause. All of these gave their support to the attempt to secure national

grants for vocational education at the last Congress. Among the organizations that favor practical training are the following:

National Metal Trades Association.
 National Association of Manufacturers.
 American Federation of Labor.
 National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education.
 National Child Labor Committee.
 National Committee on Prison Labor.
 American Association for Labor Legislation.
 National Education Association.
 American Society for the Prevention and Study of Infant Mortality.
 Southern Commercial Congress.
 Southern Educational Association.
 General Federation of Women's Clubs.
 United Textile Workers of America.

American Society of Equity (representing more than 6,000,000 farmers).
 National Farmers' Grange.
 National Farmers' Congress.
 Department of Superintendence, National Education Association.
 International Congress of Farm Women.
 American Foundrymen's Association.
 National Domestic Science Association.
 National Committee on Agricultural Education.
 American Education and Cooperative Farmers' Union.
 Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America.

Resolutions favoring vocational education have been framed by many organizations.

The National Association of Manufacturers, in its meeting of May 21, 1912, after reciting that the loss of some 50 per cent of the children to the schools in the middle of the elementary course represented a loss to the Nation in human resources of \$250,000,000,000, pledged "its earnest support of the following principles of educational betterment as essential to society and to the spiritual, social, and physical welfare of the youth":

1. Continuation schools for that half of the children who leave school at 14 years of age, and mostly in the fifth and sixth grades, these continuation schools to be liberally cultural and at the same time to be extremely practical and related as directly as possible to the occupations in which the several students are engaged.

2. The development of a modern apprenticeship system wherein by contract the respective and equal rights of employer and employee are fully recognized, the entire trade is taught, together with such other subjects as are essential to good citizenship.

3. The development of secondary continuation or trade schools, by which the more efficient of the great army of boys and girls who will enter the continuation schools may progress from these lower continuation schools, as in some other countries, to the foremost places in industry and commerce.

4. Compulsory education through adolescence, being until the 17th or 18th year, attendance being in the all-day school until the 14th year, and thereafter in either the all-day schools or in the continuation schools for not less than one-half day per week, without loss of wages for hours in school.

5. The strengthening of all truancy laws and the development of public sentiment in support thereof.

6. The training of teachers in thoroughgoing methods of industrial practice, including as part of such training extended experience in actual shopwork.

7. The establishment of independent State and local boards of industrial education, consisting of one-third each, professional educators, employers, and employees, thereby insuring, as in the more successful European countries, the proper correlation of the schools and the industries.

8. The development of the vocational and creative desires of the concrete, or hand-minded children now in the grades, discouraged, anxious to quit, and often called backward, only because the education now tendered them is abstract and misfit.

9. The establishment of shop schools and part-time schools whenever practicable.

10. The establishment of departments or centers of vocational guidance, so that the great majority of the children who now enter industry at 14 with no direction, 85 per cent falling into the "blind alley" occupations, may with the reversal of these figures, as in some other countries, enter, under advice, intelligently and properly into the progressive and improving occupations.

Resolved by the National Association of Manufacturers, That it is the imperative need of the industrial workers and employers of the country that thoroughgoing systems of industrial education be everywhere established, so that our factories may be more constantly and better employed, that standards of skill and of output may continuously be improved, and that foreign and domestic markets may be better held and extended.

The National Education Association on July 10, 1912, urged upon "the educational people of this country, as well as upon others who are engaged in social work," the necessity of definite progress along the line of vocational guidance for youth; that such guidance be carried on under the direct control of a vocational adviser, or expert, who shall be appointed by and subject to the control of a council of laymen in the several local communities; that the courses of study in the elementary schools be so enriched as to make it possible to discover the tastes, tendencies, and abilities of the child previous to the time when such vocational decisions are to be made; and that the Federal Government pass a law carrying with it an appropriation sufficiently liberal to render possible its operation, which shall have for its end the ultimate improvement of the home, shop, and farm through vocational training.

The General Federation of Women's Clubs, in July, 1912, emphasizing the restoration and preservation of the fertility of our soil, as a matter of supreme importance urged the passage of the Lever agricultural extension bill, then before Congress, and pledged the cooperation of its clubs with agricultural colleges and household economics departments in holding household conferences in every community, and in an endeavor to open such departments in the public schools for extension purposes, and that the clubs would study those phases of home economics that will introduce into the home the same scientific standards as prevail in other fields of labor.

The American Federation of Labor, in its annual convention in Rochester, November 19, 1912, urged "a greater interest in the edu-

cation of the 25,000,000 children of school age in the United States, 50 per cent of whom leave school by the end of the sixth grade at approximately 14 years of age."

It commended the Page bill then before Congress, and said:

The Page bill * * * creates a plan for Federal grants to secondary public schools, thus giving direction to a complete scheme of education in which all the children of the Nation should receive a just and equitable share of attention.

Much time and attention has already been given to this bill by the president of the American Federation of Labor, as well as by the legislative committee, and considerable hope has been expressed for its ultimate success. * * * Every effort should be made to secure such legislation, guaranteeing high Federal standards with the widest possible latitude within the States, for adaptation to the specific needs of the various communities.

III. PROGRESS IN THE RECOGNITION OF PRINCIPLES AND POLICIES.

At its annual convention in December, 1912, the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education adopted, by practically a unanimous vote, after a prolonged discussion, a statement of principles and policies in State legislation for vocational education, which it is believed promises to secure the best results in adapting practical training to the social, economic, industrial, educational, and administrative conditions of the various States of the Union. This declaration follows (condensed) :

State aid is necessary to stimulate and encourage communities to carry on work in vocational education.

Vocational education includes all forms of specialized education, the controlling purposes of which are to fit for useful occupations, as industrial education, agricultural education, commercial education, and household-arts education.

Industrial education denotes the field of vocational education designed to meet the needs of the manual wage-worker in the trades and industries and the household.

Agricultural education is that form of vocational education which fits for the occupations connected with the tillage of the soil, the care of domestic animals, forestry, and other useful work on the farm.

Commercial education denotes the field of vocational education designed to meet the needs of the wage earner employed in such business and commercial pursuits as bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, clerical work, salesmanship.

Household arts education is that form of vocational education which fits for nonwage-earning occupations connected with the household.

Vocational schools include all agricultural, industrial, commercial, and household arts schools, the controlling purpose of which is to fit for useful occupations, and which deal with pupils above 14 years of age and below college grade, as indicated below.

An all-day vocational school is a school giving training to young persons over 14 years of age who can give one or more years to such preparation before entering employment.

A part-time vocational school is a school for persons engaged in useful employment which affords instruction during a portion of the working time of the pupils that is supplementary to such employment.

Evening schools or classes in industry or agriculture are schools or classes attended by persons over 16 years of age, already engaged in useful employment, which provide instruction directly related to such employment.

Evening schools or classes in household arts are schools or classes giving instruction in home making to pupils over 16 years of age, however employed during the day.

The proper expenditure of State moneys for vocational schools should be fully safeguarded, but initiative should be left to local authorities. State aid should be sufficient to justify participation by the State in control and administration. Experience seems to show that the best results are secured when the local community furnishes the plant and equipment and pays approximately half of the operating expenses.

Legislation should leave large discretion to the State boards of control in the definition of principles and standards for the inspection, supervision, approval, and reimbursement for the work. Attendance should be free upon a State-aided vocational school for all persons in the State otherwise eligible, whether they are or are not residents of the community in which the school is maintained.

For the purpose of this statement of principles, it is necessary to distinguish sharply between administrative and executive functions. Administrative control is that exercised by a State board of education or a State commission over vocational education or a local educational authority in such matters as expenditure of moneys, courses of study, employment of teachers, etc. Executive functions are those exercised by a superintendent of schools, commissioner of education, or the director of an industrial school, in carrying out the decisions of the board of control and in other necessary executive work.

Effective administrative control of both vocational and general education requires the existence of a State board possessing sufficient powers to supervise effectively all forms of education receiving financial aid from the State. It may be necessary sometimes to establish a special administrative board of control for vocational education. Effective local administrative control of both vocational and general education requires the existence of a local school board or committee possessed of ample power to establish and maintain, under proper State supervision, general and vocational schools, and it may sometimes be necessary to procure the creation of a special board of control for vocational education. Wherever practicable representatives of both employers and employees should be on administrative boards.

For effective executive or expert control the following features should be recognized: (1) The creation by law of a separate department for vocational education, whether under the regular State board of education or otherwise; (2) the placing at the head of this department of a competent deputy commissioner, superintendent,

director, or supervisor, who shall be an expert in vocational education and shall be familiar with industrial conditions; (3) a salary sufficient to attract and hold a competent man, and such conditions of tenure of office as would remove him from the ranks of political employees; (4) the delegation to this official of large powers and responsibilities for superintending the work.

Efficiency in vocational education requires different methods of school administration, different courses of study, different qualifications of teachers, different equipment, different ways of meeting the needs of pupils, and a much greater flexibility in adapting means to ends than is possible of development under the ordinary routine of the public-school system. For these reasons, whether administered by regular public-school authorities or a separate board of control, and whether conducted in a separate building or under the same roof as the regular school, the work in vocational education should be carried on separately and independently from that of general education. Experience seems to prove that, where conditions admit, separate schools are best.

Should the State desire to give aid to vocational departments in the regular schools, such a department should be defined in the law as a department having a separate head with a separate organization of classes, teachers, and courses of study, and separate facilities for shopwork. The academic work should be such as meets the needs of the pupils of this department.

The unquestionable tendency in American education is toward broadening the responsibility of the State for the educational conservation of the child up to 16 years of age. In this forward movement the following principles and steps seem to be demanded in connection with vocational as well as general education: (1) The State should have the care and the responsibility for the training and educational welfare of all children, at least until they become 16 years of age. (2) No child under 16 years of age should be permitted to go to work unless he is at least 14 years of age and has reached a prescribed minimum educational standard which should not be less than that necessary to meet the test for entering the sixth grade of the regular schools or its equivalent. (3) All children between 14 and 16 years of age should be compelled either to attend school or to enter employment, and when not employed should be required to return to school. (4) Where State-wide action is not yet practicable, local communities should be authorized by law to decide either by a referendum or by the action of a local board of control, whether children between 14 and 16 years of age, employed during the day, should be required to attend part-time classes for a period of not less than four hours a week out of their working time. (5) As fast

as conditions permit, we should move in every State in the direction of State-wide compulsory part-time education for those between 14 and 16 years of age, who are employed as wageworkers.

This forward movement has received prompt and favorable recognition at the hands of the United States Commissioner of Education through the following bulletins issued by the Bureau of Education in 1911, 1912, and 1913:

1911: No. 2. Opportunities for graduate study in agriculture.

1912: No. 1. Courses of study for rural school teachers.

No. 4. Mathematics in technical secondary schools.

No. 6. Agricultural education in secondary schools.

No. 9. Country schools for city boys.

No. 18. Teaching language through agriculture and domestic science.

No. 20. Readjustment of an American rural high school to the needs of the community.

No. 28. Cultivating school grounds in Wake County, N. C.

1913: No. 2. Training courses for rural teachers.

No. 6. Agricultural instruction in high schools.

The demand for teachers with trade training already far exceeds the supply now available, and the rewards promise to be greater than for regular teachers, as they must be to attract the successful artisan to the work. Eight States are this year either creating or extending the scope of a system of State-aided vocational schools. Not less than ten others are making plans to set up such a system next year. Federal aid for vocational education at an early date is certain. We are rushing into a large program of practical education in this country, not only without teachers properly qualified by training and experience for the work and practically without any successful scheme for dealing with the problem of making the artisan and the mechanic a teacher of his own calling, but also without even the beginning of well-considered attempts to deal with the problem and without even a clear knowledge of what a training class could and should do for him. Only by experimenting with schemes which promise well will we learn how to face this great and important task.

Recognizing the great need for prompt action in dealing with this question, and that this action should be preceded by a recognition of the principles and policies that should be observed in the attempt to gather persons with trade experience from the trades and prepare them to meet the demands of the service in the great number of industrial schools of every kind which are soon to be established, a great deal of attention was given to the question by the national society at its last annual convention.

A statement of principles and policies to be observed in the training of teachers for boys' work was drawn up by Dr. David Snedden, commissioner of education for Massachusetts, and Mr. C. R. Allen,

agent of the Massachusetts State Board of Education; and of those to be observed in the training of teachers for girls' work, by Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman, president Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, Mass., and Miss Florence M. Marshall, principal, Manhattan Trade School for Girls, New York City. The statement as to teachers for boys' work follows:

TEACHERS FOR BOYS' WORK.

1. One of the most serious problems of the industrial school of the future is to deal with adolescents, taking them as they come and fitting them for practical tests of social and industrial efficiency.
2. The ordinary type of pedagogical training given to prospective teachers will not serve to adequately prepare them for successful service in such industrial schools.
3. Successful teaching must be based upon the real experience in the line taught.
4. Trade training alone will not make good teachers.
5. The industrial school has problems peculiar to itself, which call for special training for teachers in such schools.
6. We are not likely to secure good teachers for industrial schools by drawing teachers from regular public schools and giving them additional training.
7. Pseudo-experience, such as is gained by ordinary students in school and college shops, will not replace actual practical experience.
8. "Student" experience under real conditions, such as is gained by a short period of contact with industrial environment, will not replace real experience.
9. A person who has passed through college, whether general or technical, by a continuous school process, is not likely to make a successful industrial school-teacher, nor to afford good material for a special training course for such teachers.
10. We can not secure, as teachers in industrial schools, those competent to hold desirable and profitable positions in industry as long as we pay them on the same basis as regular public-school teachers.
11. In training competent industrial school-teachers, we must expect a greater per capita cost than we are in the habit of expecting in the training of ordinary school-teachers.
12. A scheme for training industrial school-teachers, starting with adults who have already had successful experience as teachers in regular schools, is not likely to succeed.
13. A scheme of training will not be efficient which proposes to deal with those who bring to it only a general secondary school preparation, and which proposes to give them during the college phase of their education all necessary training to fit them for successful teaching in industrial schools.
14. The evening course, which proposes to train persons with experience employed during the day, is only a partial solution of the problem, owing to its inability to afford an opportunity for observation and practice in teaching during the course.
15. The German experience shows that the most effective teachers must be drawn from the industries.
16. The most effective scheme known thus far is the German scheme, involving the following steps: (a) A technical training in the middle technical school, followed by (b) a prolonged experience as an actual worker in the in-

dustry which is to be taught; (c) a return to a training course giving special training for teaching in an industrial school, accompanied by an experience as an assistant teacher in an actual school.

17. In view of the fact that (a) we must get our efficient teachers from the industries, and (b) that these people can not afford to take full-time day courses, the most promising plan would seem to be a course which provides for a series of evening unit courses, each unit dealing with some specific phase of the special instruction required for an efficient teacher; following this by employment in industrial schools as an assistant teacher, with an obligation on the part of the industrial school to conduct a certain amount of further normal training work with these assistant teachers.

18. The most promising plan for training teachers for industrial schools would involve the following steps: (a) The gathering of the pupils with successful experience in the industries; (b) evening unit courses for the student while he continues to work at his calling; (c) each unit dealing with some phase or factor of the preparation required for an efficient teacher; (d) followed by employment as an assistant teacher in an industrial school; (e) with obligation on the part of the school to give a certain amount of additional normal training to him after he enters the service.

IV. PROGRESS IN LOCALITIES.

State commissions and studies are being carried on in a number of Commonwealths as a basis for later action. The Indiana Commission on Agricultural and Industrial Education has just made its report, 1913, to the legislature. Massachusetts has completed the study of the possibilities of part-time and continuation schools, in a special report from its State board of education to the general assembly.

Studies and investigations.—Special committees, sometimes under the auspices of the board of education and sometimes under local chambers of commerce, are making investigations of the needs and possibilities of industrial education at various places in the country. Among these places are New York City (through the Public Education Association, Vocational Guidance Survey, and the census bureau of the New York public schools), Philadelphia (through its Public Education Association), Buffalo and Rochester (through the chamber of commerce), Cleveland (through the chamber of commerce and the local Young Men's Christian Association), and through local school authorities in such places as Springfield, Decatur, and Moline, Ill., Hammond and Lafayette, Ind., Grand Rapids, Mich., Middletown, Ohio, and Washington, D. C.

Schemes for the training of teachers with trade experience through evening schools are being carried on for 1912-13 by the Boston Young Men's Christian Association, the Boston Evening Industrial School, the Buffalo State Normal School, the Albany State Normal School; in the city of Milwaukee by the extension department of the University of Wisconsin. There will also be several carefully con-

ducted experiments in the training of teachers with trade experience in the city of New York by educational institutions. This plan of fitting artisans for teaching through evening schools seems to promise the best results in inducing men from the industries to fit themselves for service in the schools.

Massachusetts.—In its report for 1913 the State board of education gives the following figures to indicate in part the extent of vocational education in Massachusetts:

Number of cities and towns where some form of vocational education is being maintained	35
Number of pupils attending State-aided vocational schools	7,164
Number of pupils attending certain institutions not State aided	3,686
Total number of pupils	10,850

The following new schools were approved provisionally for the year ending 1911-12:

Boston Continuation School of Homemaking.
 Everett Independent Evening Industrial School.
 Holyoke Independent Evening Industrial School.
 Lowell Independent Industrial School.
 Quincy Independent Evening Industrial School.
 Somerville Industrial School for Girls.
 Springfield Day Industrial School for Boys.
 Watertown Evening Industrial School.
 Westfield Day Industrial School for Boys.
 Worcester Trade School for Girls.

Wisconsin.—Near the close of 1912, the State commission for industrial and agricultural training of Wisconsin, reported more than 12,000 children in attendance upon part-time and continuation schools. Schools have been organized or are in process of organization in the following cities: Appleton, Ashland, Beaver Dam, Beloit, Chippewa Falls, Baraboo, Eau Claire, Fond du Lac, Grand Rapids, Green Bay, Janesville, Kenosha, La Crosse, Madison, Manitowoc, Marinette, Marshfield, Menasha, Menomonie, Merrill, Milwaukee, Neenah, Oshkosh, Portage, Racine, Sheboygan, South Milwaukee, Stevens Point, Superior, Two Rivers, Watertown, Waukesha, Wausau, West Allis, Kaukauna, and Antigo.

New York.—In New York State, the number of pupils in vocational State-aided schools grew from 945, four years ago, to 8,388, for the school year 1911-12. These were taken care of in 37 industrial schools, having a force of 208 teachers, and costing for maintenance, \$324,438 for 1911-12, of which the amount of State aid was \$47,110. These figures do not include the pupils in the evening trade schools in such places as Buffalo, Rochester, and New York City; such schools not receiving State aid under the present statutes.

General.—No attempt is made here to give anything more than a partial list of the number of new schools that have been established for industrial, trade, and technical education in the various parts of the country, as the writer is not in possession of information sufficient to justify the claim to a comprehensive list. No listing of agricultural schemes is made. Some form of industrial or technical instruction is under way in each of the following cities: Hammond, Lafayette, Muncie, Indianapolis, Terre Haute, Vincennes, Ind.; Saginaw, Kalamazoo, Grand Rapids, Detroit—Cass Technical High School and the Detroit Technical Institute, Detroit University, Mich.; Harrisburg, Scranton, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Lancaster, Pa.; Hartford, Waterbury, Bridgeport, New Britain, Conn.; in Chicago, the Lewis Institute part-time class carried on under the auspices of the National Metal Trades Association; the Lucy Flower Technical High School, the Crane Technical High School, and the Lane Technical High School and evening industrial classes; Moline, Decatur, Springfield, Joliet, Rock Island, Rockford, Ill.; David Ranken, jr., School of Mechanical Trades in St. Louis, Mo.; Bayonne, Paterson, Newark, Trenton, Jersey City, Passaic, in New Jersey; Cleveland, Toledo, and Cincinnati, Ohio, through cooperative part-time and continuation courses; Portland, Oreg., Chattanooga, Tenn., Baltimore, Md., Boise, Idaho, and Providence, R. I.

CHAPTER XI.

TYPICAL HEALTH-TEACHING AGENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

By F. B. DRESSLAR,

Special Agent of the Bureau of Education.

A world-wide movement which has for its purpose the education of all the people in matters pertaining to health is rapidly developing. Societies or committees have been organized to protect the health of infants; others to teach school children to care for their teeth; others for the specific purpose of educating expectant mothers; others to teach people the value of fresh air, good food, and proper sanitation in the fight against tuberculosis. Scores of others are directing their energies more or less exclusively to the dissemination of prophylactic and hygienic information designed to give help in the prevention of certain specific diseases.

Literally hundreds of such organizations are now at work throughout the United States, most of which are doing valuable service, while there is scarcely a city or county without its central health committee. Thus far there has been no successful attempt to organize all these individual agencies into one general body for united and cooperative action; but it is only a matter of time when this must be done in order that the widest and most effectual results may be achieved for the time, the labor, and the money expended.

The spirit prompting the service of most of the organizations whose work is herein briefly outlined, is commendable in the highest degree. This spirit is in a very definite sense the product of modern social conditions, and the conviction is growing that reform in any line of human activity must ensue from a clearer knowledge of the facts involved. This spirit is at times perhaps not sufficiently apprized of the tremendous difficulties involved in changing the habits and attitude of the masses. Education is a process, as well as a product. The mere information offered, though it may be kindly received by those people or the class of people it designs to help, will not necessarily bring them to that point where it will compel change of habits or intellectualize the action proposed. It remains

to be seen how many of these attempts are bona fide attempts at education, or whether they merely represent more or less sporadic expressions of a desire to do something, with more consciousness of the joy of doing than of the final end to be attained. Those organizations which have the vision to "look into the future," which have the knowledge of how best to do that which is necessary to be done, and the faith and the patience to persist in their endeavors, will do real educational work. Readers of the brief accounts herein will, I believe, realize that a new and impressive conception of the national as well as the personal value of good health, both from the economic and spiritual point of view, has dawned upon the world. It may be that "the earth will be as cold as the moon before all men learn that the only real wealth is health," as Mr. Collier has recently suggested, but there is no escape from the fact that a mighty army of enthusiasts is now enlisted to bring this knowledge to all men long before the cooling processes of this planet have made any rapid progress.

If one undertakes to search out the elements which have entered into this simultaneous awakening of the world at large, he is balked by insufficient knowledge or lack of that prophetic faith which easily turns mountains into molehills. Still there are some glimpses of truth visible, and these may be sketched as follows:

(1) The rapid development of knowledge concerning the bacterial causes of disease has emphasized the work of prevention, and made it clear that diseases are not providentially appointed means for inflicting punishment, but the results in most cases of the attacks of parasitic enemies which we may learn to recognize and destroy.

(2) Science has made it possible to anticipate the poisonous influence of toxic products produced by pathogenic germs in a few diseases, by the inoculation of well people with preparations known as virus, serums, etc., so that they are rendered comparatively immune to the harmful effects of these diseases. For example, the dreadful ravages of smallpox, so common two centuries ago, have been reduced almost to the minimum in those countries in which all people are compelled to submit to proper vaccination. Despite the multitude of facts which can be cited to substantiate this statement, there are yet in this country many persons who deny the facts, and who resist all attempts to compel the people at large to profit by them. The serum treatments for diphtheria and typhoid fever have proved their value, and they offer opportunities for much added protection. Little by little public health gains are thus made through science, but it is a herculean task to teach the people to take advantage of these safeguards.

(3) We know in part that vigorous health is one of the best measures for protection against any infectious disease. Parasitic bacteria have first to overcome the natural resistance and the vigorous

assaults against them made by a healthy, well-nourished, and, therefore, heavily armed individual, before they can inflict on him the injury they are capable of inflicting.

(4) The growing faith in the value of the results of specialized scientific experimentation and scientific teaching is one of the hopeful signs of the modern world. Patent medicines and superstitious concoctions are still veritable ogres preying on our people, but the scalpel and microscope, the test tube, and the retort will in time—a long time—drive them into oblivion. Slowly but surely the teachers and the scientific workers the world over are accumulating the means of defense and are training the people how to fight these enemies. The establishment and maintenance of research laboratories and hygienic museums, the hundreds of scientific journals and magazines, and the almost innumerable meetings of associations and congresses are all aiding directly and indirectly to democratize scientific health knowledge and to make it really and truly useful.

(5) A new page was turned in the book of hygiene when the discoveries were made that many diseases are transmitted by insects and that apparently well people may be carriers of disease germs and thereby become dangerous to the community. With no mosquitoes there will be no malaria or yellow fever; with no rats or mice, no plague; no stable flies, no infantile paralysis; sanitary sewerage, no flies, pure water, pure milk, pure food, and proper protection against all typhoid carriers, and typhoid fever will be eliminated.

(6) All these results of science have forced the conclusion that in general sanitation is a thousandfold more powerful than attempts at cure after disease has been contracted. Hence there has arisen a strong movement for the conservation of life and health from the economic and humanitarian point of view, both for the individual and for the Nation. This conservation program is still in a more or less inchoate stage of evolution. It began in strong sentiment and must be coordinated into an intelligently directed educational endeavor. Sentiment is a strong and useful factor in life, but it often leads people into false emphasis. More people are dying in this country every day from preventable causes than were lost in the *Titanic* disaster; but the latter, not the former, called forth the sentiment and immediate relief, as far as it was within the power of man to relieve. The health and sanitation of a nation must come through a systematic, scientific, and unceasing education. That education must include the prenatal care of the Nation's mothers, and extend from the ground floor of school-teaching upward until the entire educational system is saturated with the need for the knowledge of health and the desire to make wholesome living one of the Nation's chief ideals.

There has been no attempt to make this inventory of health teaching exhaustive. It is merely a beginning; and those societies, or other agencies not mentioned here, though engaged in this work, can have no reason to feel slighted, for at this time it is practically impossible to search them out and formulate the programs of their work. Later a more persistent effort will be made to get the facts and to correlate and interpret them.

It is hoped that the accounts herein given will typify the general movement for health conservation and furnish some incentive for more effective correlation and cooperation of those agencies, both public and private, which are trying to help in this very significant educational undertaking.

VARIOUS NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND SOCIETIES ENGAGED IN GENERAL HEALTH WORK.

The United States Public Health Service, through its division of sanitary reports and statistics, is doing a great educational work throughout the country. The work is especially helpful, because it is done by men of high scientific attainment and under favorable conditions. The health reports are issued weekly and contain:

(1) Current information of the prevalence and geographic distribution of preventable diseases in the United States in so far as data are obtainable, and of cholera, plague, yellow fever, and smallpox throughout the world. (2) Copies of the laws and regulations being enacted or adopted by State and municipal authorities for the safeguarding of the public health. (3) Articles relating to the cause, prevention, or control of disease. (4) Other pertinent information regarding sanitation and the conservation of the public health. The reports are intended primarily for distribution to health officers, members of boards or departments of health, and those directly or indirectly engaged in or connected with public health or sanitary work.

Perhaps the most important function of this service is the scientific investigations made and the expert service rendered to various State health officers and others in connection with epidemics of contagious diseases and sanitary matters affecting the safety of the public in general.

The United States Public Health Service is the new name given to the reorganization and enlargement of what was formerly known as the Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service. Surg. Gen. Rupert Blue is the responsible head of this service.

The American Public Health Association has for many years been an educational agency of significant value. Through the papers presented at its annual meetings, through its published proceedings, and at present through its Journal it has taken a leading place in directing the attention of the expert sanitarian to the doctrine and means of preventing disease and securing better sanitation.

Its attitude toward the problems of educating the people deserves especial commendation, for while its membership has been largely drawn from the medical profession it has emphasized the value of hygienic living, sanitation, and preventive measures more than the value of medicine. Its membership is drawn from the United States, Canada, Cuba, and Mexico.

No detailed account of its educational work is possible save to say that its educational influence has been felt more among the health officers than among the medical profession as a whole.

The American Association for Labor Legislation is a branch of an international association, and is managed by an executive committee and a general administrative council. This committee and council are composed of men and women of national reputation. The president of this association is Prof. W. P. Willoughby, of Princeton University. The following account of its health work was prepared by its secretary, Mr. John B. Andrews, of New York City:

The problem of preventing industrial disease is among the most important of those engaging the attention of the American Association for Labor Legislation. The association strives to reach its end by two means, (1) legislation, (2) publicity.

The publicity campaign comprises:

(a) Annual public meetings of the association, at which industrial disease topics are discussed, along with other matters; annual conferences of the administrative council; biennial national conferences on industrial diseases, and occasional informal conferences to discuss pressing developments.

(b) Publications, including the *American Labor Legislation Review*, which deals authoritatively and exhaustively with the various phases of the subject, including full reports of the annual and biennial meetings; special leaflets on "Industrial hygiene," "Phossy jaw," "Reporting of industrial diseases," "Preventing of industrial diseases, with special reference to lead poisoning," many of which contain standard uniform bills upon the subjects with which they deal; pamphlets, such as "Memorial to the President on occupational diseases," "Industrial diseases and occupational standards," "Occupational diseases in the mining industry," and "Protection against occupational diseases." The association also distributes the monthly bulletin in English of its international labor office at Basle, Switzerland, and other valuable material from abroad issued by the other 15 national sections of the International Association for Labor Legislation, with which it is affiliated.

(c) Information bureau, which handles requests for information made by Government officials, manufacturers, physicians, legislators, lawyers, insurance actuaries, trade-unionists, social workers, teachers, clergymen, lecturers, writers, and students from all over the country.

(d) Press service; 865 daily and weekly papers, in all parts of the United States, are on the association's mailing list and receive periodic news articles under a release date. Special departments are also conducted in the *Survey* (New York) and *Life and Labor* (Chicago), in which the latest developments in labor legislation, including matters of industrial hygiene, are treated.

(e) A traveling exhibit has been carefully built up, with artistic charts and photographs, illustrating dangerous industrial processes, and presenting statistical tables as to the results and simple and effective advice as to the

methods of protection. Occasional lectures are delivered by members of the association staff before organizations requesting their services.

In the legislative part of the work standard bills are drafted by experts, after careful investigation, to meet adverse conditions in industry. These bills are introduced in the several State legislatures or in Congress and vigorously pushed to adoption. Popular interest and education are thus made to go hand in hand with the legislation in which they are crystallized.

The work of the committee of one hundred on national health, of the *American Association for the Advancement of Science*, is so well known and has been of such marked service that no comprehensive account of its work need here be given. It has had a very large influence, not only in scientific lines, but in legislative and general educational work. Besides, its most effective service has been along the line of helping to establish the United States Public Health Service and in calling attention to conservation movement as applied to health matters.

Prof. Irving Fisher, of Yale University, is president of this committee.

The committee has issued over twoscore publications, among them "National Vitality," the report of President Roosevelt's conservation commission. In summing up the chief facts presented in this report, Dr. Schieffelin, chairman of the executive committee, says:

It showed that out of the entire population 1,500,000 die annually, and of this number nearly half die many years before they should. It also showed that there are constantly 3,000,000 sick beds in the country, and that if hygienic knowledge now available were used at least one-half of these people might be among the well instead of among the sick.

In a memorial relating to the conservation of human life, as contemplated by a bill providing for a United States Public Health Service, prepared by Prof. Fisher, and published as Senate Document No. 493, Sixty-second Congress, the whole problem of conservation of human life from a national point of view was briefly summarized. This document had a large influence in helping to pass the bill providing for a United States Public Health Service, and in addition has been of signal service in a general educational way. Those who wish a fuller account of the work of this committee in connection with its legislation should refer to this document.

The American Civic Association was organized—

to make American living conditions clean, healthful, attractive; to extend the making of public parks; to promote the opening of gardens and playgrounds for children and recreation centers for adults; to abate public nuisances, including objectionable signs, unnecessary poles and wires, wasteful smoking factory chimneys, unnecessary noises; to exterminate the typhoid fly; to make the buildings and surroundings of railway stations, schools, and factories attractive; to protect existing trees and to encourage intelligent tree planting.

There are two departments of work which are distinctly along public-health lines. First, a systematic crusade against the smoke nuisance, in connection with which valuable bulletins have been issued, laying stress upon the dangers to health condition as well as to the beauty of cities.

For the past three years an energetic crusade against the house fly has been conducted, presenting strong argument for the elimination of the fly. We have used the expression "Kill flies and save lives," and, as a most important phase of the work, have urged that, if the motive for cleaning back yards for the sake of beauty was not sufficient, there was the additional motive of preservation of life and health in clearing away débris, particularly manure piles about stables, in which the flies breed. The plea has not been so much against the mature fly as it has been the fly in the egg, larva, and pupa state in the manure pile or other disagreeable breeding places.

Under the direction of the chairman of our fly-fighting committee, Mr. Edward Hatch, jr., of New York City, who last year was chairman of the fly committee of the Merchants' Association of New York City, a remarkable series of photographs was taken in England illustrating in minutest detail the habits of the fly in its breeding, showing it enlarged to the size of a Plymouth Rock hen as it burrows in the manure pile for a nesting place, showing the development of the eggs through the larvæ and pupæ states into the adult fly.

These films have been sent out through the 5 and 10 cent theaters of America, reaching just the people we most desired to reach, and without doubt sending them to their homes determined at least to get rid of the flies that may be found in their homes, and in many cases to become ardent and enthusiastic coworkers in the general campaign for the complete extermination of the fly. Reports received from many film distributors show that the fly pictures have been very popular. In many cities they have been presented under the auspices of the local civic associations.

As a natural feature of our crusade we have issued bulletins pointing out the dangers of the fly and suggesting methods for its extermination. We have devoted practically all of our efforts toward impressing upon people the importance of doing away with the breeding places of the fly.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction, an organization which has been in existence for 40 years, was primarily organized to consider the care of defectives and delinquents. They find, however, that a good part of their endeavor has necessarily been given to the promotion of health conditions and the education of the general public with regard to better sanitary and preventive measures in connection with the care of such charges. This conference is an annual meeting where people exchange views on subjects relating to charity and correction. They publish their proceedings in an annual volume. Their efficient secretary, Mr. Alexander Johnson, of Angola, Ind., states that in recent years many articles published in this volume have had to do with general health matters, among which the following are noted: "Prevention of disease," "Care of the sick in hospitals," "Cooperation between hospitals and relief societies," "Warfare against tuberculosis," "The open-air treatment for consumptives," "Visiting nursing," "The educational opportunity of the visiting nurse in the prevention of disease," "A broader motive for school

hygiene," "The duty of society to the child at school," "The Nation's outlook for health," and "Prevention of blindness from ophthalmia neonatorum."

The conference to be held at Seattle in July, 1913, will have a committee on "health and productive power." It is proposed by this committee to correlate as far as possible questions of public health with those of industry and social service of every kind.

The National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, in addition to its great and well-known work in the cause of temperance, has departments of physical education, social purity, and health and heredity, through which many publications bearing on these topics have been published and distributed. Their main health work, however, has had to do with propaganda relating to scientific temperance instruction and in teaching the world the physical and moral effects of the use of alcoholic beverages, tobacco, and all narcotics. This society has done a vast amount of good.

The National Congress of Mothers consists of the federation of 36 States, each State having presidents, officers, and committees. Mrs. Walter S. Brown, chairman of the child hygiene committee of this congress, says each State child hygiene chairman is provided with literature and suggestions and is instructed to work out local problems. As an illustration of how this organization works, instance is cited of the city of Des Moines:

We have 40 women's clubs, with a membership of 40 to 100 and more; we estimate that in this city we reach directly something like 2,500 homes, and what is true of the city of Des Moines is true to a large extent of many cities throughout the country.

The educational organ of the National Congress of Mothers is the "Child-Welfare" magazine, published monthly, devoted to all phases of child welfare, including many articles on sanitation and hygiene.

The Iowa branch of the National Congress of Mothers reports that one of its most important educational agencies for better health is their baby health-contest work. Reports from that State declare that this work "met with very great success, and plans have been completed to make it a nation-wide movement." The General Federation of Women's Clubs, with a membership of nearly 1,000,000, is undertaking to introduce the same work through its public health committee.

The women's department of the *National Civic Federation on Dangerous and Unhealthful Industries*, through its chairman, Mrs. L. W. Bates, has published the results of an extensive investigation into mercurial poisoning in the industries of New York City and vicinity. This report, among other discussions, gives figures con-

cerning the extent of mercurial poisoning, an account of its symptoms, and some account of the cures. In this section she says:

The saddest feature about the occurrence of this occupational disease is that the greater part of it is needless. Remedies may be of two kinds, industrial and medical. Industrial consist of correct hygiene through adequate ventilation and best mechanism for a definite process; fumes must be eliminated; dust, floating fur, etc., must be eliminated. The doctor's one prescription for cure is "Leave the employment."

In another illustrated pamphlet, entitled "Welfare work, clothing manufacturers, New York City," the conditions of the shop and workers are set forth, in order that not only the public may be educated to the conditions that exist, but that those who enter such employment may know the dangers incident thereto.

The committee is seeking to increase the number of inspectors, and to create a sentiment strong enough to compel the managers to provide sanitary conditions for the workers.

They further attempt to educate the employees by printed matter and by such direct educational efforts as they can command. They state that "Welfare Work" expects to educate along the following lines:

(a) *Sanitary work places*: System for providing pure drinking water; for ventilation, including the cooling of superheated places and devices for exhausting dust and removing gases; for lighting work places and for guarding machinery; washrooms with hot and cold water, towels, and soap; shower baths for molders and stationary firemen; emergency hospitals; locker rooms; seats for women; laundries for men's overalls or women's uniforms; the use of elevators for women; and luncheon rooms. The beginning of all welfare work should be directed toward meeting the pressing necessities for the physical well being of employees in their work places.

(b) *Recreation*: The social hall for dancing parties, concerts, theatricals; billiards, pool, or bowling, the gymnasium, athletic field, roof garden, vacations and summer excursions for employees, and rest rooms or trainmen's rest houses.

(c) *Educational*: Classes for apprentices in cooking, dressmaking, and millinery; first aid to the injured; night classes for technical training; kindergartens and libraries.

(d) *Housing*: Home rented or sold to employees, and boarding houses.

(e) *Provident funds*: For insurance, pensions, savings, or leading money in times of stress.

The American Institute of Child Life, an endowed corporation, with headquarters at Philadelphia, states that the purpose of the corporation—

is to advise parents in regard to the mental training, moral guidance, health, recreation, and amusements of children by means of correspondence, circulation of books, pamphlets, magazines, exhibits, lectures, etc.

The department of investigation of the institute has outlined a comprehensive form of organization and activities, and proposes to issue "a series of five volumes, each volume to contain approximately 400 pages, 400 words to the page," with the general title "A Survey of Childhood." The chapters of these proposed volumes to be written by well-known specialists. The first volume is to deal with the physical life of the child.

The American Society for the Study of Alcohol and Other Narcotics was organized in 1870 by physicians and persons interested in the physical study of the drink problem. It has held annual and semiannual meetings up to the present time, for the reading and discussion of papers, confined entirely to the scientific side of the problem.

In 1876 this society established the Quarterly Journal of Inebriety as its organ, which is still published. The society was the first of its kind to discuss this subject.

The American society and its journal has created and established interest in this line of work and has been a leader in the movement. Over 500 papers have been read and discussed at the annual meetings, and these have become a large part of the literature bearing on scientific temperance. A dozen volumes have been written by its members on this subject. In 1909 the Government published Senate Document No. 48, containing the transactions and papers of this society's meeting. Dr. T. D. Crothers, of Hartford, is secretary.

The work of the *National Housing Association*, through its secretary, John Ihlder, makes the following report with reference to the active interest of that organization in sanitary inspection and general educational work connected with such opportunities as its work affords:

At its two national conferences, 1911 and 1912, it laid great stress upon the relation of housing to health, having papers by health officials and others on "Health departments and housing," "Privy vaults," "Alleys," "Garbage and rubbish," "Sanitary inspection of tenements," "Room overcrowding and the lodger evil," etc., all of which emphasized the health side of housing. At these conferences a large proportion of the delegates were health officers from all parts of the United States and Canada.

Besides these papers the National Housing Association has published a series of pamphlets, several of which deal directly with public health, as "What bad housing means to the community," "Teaching the tenant," "Housing and health," "The survey and the smaller city," "The home as a factor in public health," and "The work of a housing committee."

One of the most valuable parts of the association's work has been the aid it has given in drafting legislation which will increase the healthfulness of a community by requiring more wholesome construction and more sanitary conditions in dwellings. It seeks to set a standard for all the dwellings in the community, the chief purpose of its recommendations being to safeguard the health and the morals of the people. It is untiring in its efforts to secure

adequate appropriations for health departments, so that they may maintain an efficient inspection service.

The Playground and Recreation Association of America, through its secretary, Mr. H. S. Braucher, furnished the following brief statements of the educational work of this association:

The Playground and Recreation Association of America attempts to give recreation its rightful place in the life of the American people, and to give every person, young or old, rich or poor, in city or country, a life rather than a living.

Methods of work :

1. By sending field secretaries to organize local recreational work on a comprehensive basis and to give expert advice on difficult problems.
2. By answering through correspondence the many requests for information and advice which come to the office.
3. By consultation with individuals who come to talk over their problems.
4. By publishing a monthly magazine called *The Playground*. Also through leaflets, pamphlets, and other publications.
5. By loaning lantern slides, cuts, and photographs, and sending publicity material to aid in conducting local campaigns.
6. By collecting information regarding recreation work in all the cities and towns of the country, and making this information available for all interested in recreation.
7. By holding annual meetings and institutes where workers may learn of each other's experiences and have the benefit of expert advice.
8. By helping recreation officials to find capable recreation secretaries, supervisors, directors, and play leaders.

Mr. Manford P. Welcher, field secretary of the *Anti-Cigarette League of America, Eastern Division*, includes in his field of work public and private schools for both boys and girls, coeducational school, Sunday schools, business schools, theological seminaries, a few colleges, the organization of the Boy Scouts and other similar associations. In addition to preparing and distributing a vast amount of printed matter bearing on the evils of cigarette smoking, Mr. Welcher spends much of his time in the field, lecturing to young and old on this topic. He states that the instinct for collecting picture cards, buttons, and other inserts from cigarette boxes and returning them as coupons for prizes is one of the causes leading to boys smoking cigarettes. His educational program consists largely in lecturing, distributing printed matter, and collecting facts regarding the evils and dangers of this habit.

The educational work of the *American Red Cross* is largely limited to their first-aid department, in charge of Maj. Charles Lynch, Medical Corps, United States Army, who has furnished the following brief statement of their work :

The first-aid-to-the-injured department of the American Red Cross was organized in 1910. On its committee are representatives of both capital and

labor interests, as well as first-aid experts. The office is conducted in Washington, D. C., where books are prepared and several classes of supplies designed and stored. Books, charts, and other first-aid supplies are sold at cost price.

Three physicians are teaching first aid in the field, as representatives of the American Red Cross. One of these is assigned to special districts or special plants, and the two others teach on first-aid cars, which have now covered nearly all the railroads of the United States. Besides this, we teach schools, police and fire departments, etc.

We have affiliations with the Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association, and the Boy Scouts, acting as their representative in first-aid instruction.

For the past three and a half years our representatives have traveled some 150,000 miles and have instructed over 250,000 people.

As a branch and extension of this work recently organized might be mentioned the classes in first aid and home nursing for women. A number of first-aid courses have been given to women, but it is now intended to extend instruction of this character by giving home nursing and household economic courses. Miss Marion L. Oliver is in charge of organizing classes in first aid and home nursing. So far as the nursing part of this instruction is concerned, this is under the general direction of Miss Jane A. Delano, chairman nursing committee, American Red Cross.

COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH EDUCATION AMONG WOMEN AND ITS AFFILIATED ORGANIZATIONS.

The American Medical Association in July, 1909, organized a committee for public health education among women, with Dr. Rosalie Slaughter Morton, of New York City, as its first chairman.

The purpose of the committee was to interest women's clubs in study for the prevention of disease. It was soon found that organizations of men were interested equally with the women. At the end of the third year, July, 1912, work was organized in 45 States, 238 counties, Alaska, Philippines, Hawaii, and the Canal Zone.

During the year July, 1911-July, 1912, talks were given to women's clubs, mothers' clubs, Young Women's Christian Associations, Young Men's Christian Associations, men's and women's factory clubs, labor organizations, fraternal organizations of men and women, farmers' institutes, teachers' institutes, normal schools, public schools, and other organizations of men and women, as well as to the general public. Single talks were given to approximately 3,500 general audiences and 1,000 audiences of school children, in addition to 50 series to the public and 6 series to school children. Audiences for the year were over 300,000, making a total for the three years since the organization of the committee of over 600,000 men, women, and children to whom talks were given for the purpose of education in the prevention of disease.

The work on the part of the speakers and committee members is entirely gratuitous; the only expense is that of correspondence in the central office.

The effort of this committee during the six months from July, 1912, to December, 1912, has been to secure a more complete organization by inducing State medical societies to appoint committees for public health education, the duty of which shall be to coordinate the work done in the county societies and to cooperate with the State chairmen under this committee. In this way the American Medical Association committee will be able to coordinate the work

done in the States and to disseminate knowledge of methods found most effective.

During this half year the number of county organizations has been increased. Each organization adds a large number of individuals to the instructing force. There has been a corresponding increase in organizations applying for lectures.

The list of books on the prevention of disease compiled by a subcommittee, of which Dr. Jane L. Berry, New York City, is chairman, includes 257 volumes classified under 12 headings. This list of books has been sent to each library in the United States not technical in character and containing 5,000 or more volumes. Cooperation on the part of the librarian has been sought, and in many instances these books are being put into public libraries.

In many counties the county committee, together with the public librarian, are reviewing books on hygiene in the library and publishing short lists for the use of the public. In a few places a traveling library on hygiene has been provided.

The New Jersey committee on public health education among women, a division of the national committee, reports, through its State chairman, Dr. Maria Mitchell, of East Orange, N. J., that:

There were given during 1912 about 100 lectures on subjects pertaining to preventive medicine, hygiene, and sanitation. These lectures were, many of them, given in clubs federated with the State Federation of Women's Clubs. Some were given in schools, others in parent-teachers associations. A few were given in factories, libraries, public meetings of medical societies, etc. This year we are trying to arouse interest in every county, through its county medical society, and to take up work in factories and labor unions, and do further work in schools and clubs. We have also published in various daily and weekly papers articles on health subjects. We have given series of lectures in Newark for two years and in Glenridge. We are cooperating with all organizations that desire assistance in learning better how to improve health and prevent race suicide.

The following list of subjects will indicate the nature of the work undertaken:

Foods—their uses and abuses.

Relation of flies and insects to contagious disease in mankind.

Work, play, and exercise for children.

Uses of vaccines, antitoxins, and serums in the treatment and prevention of disease.

Relation of adenoids, tonsils, and decayed teeth to growth and development.

Relation of feeding to the production of summer diarrheas.

Necessity of early treatment of deformities in children.

The catching-cold phobia, winter weather, and clothing.

Care of the ears and eyes.

Eugenics.

Teaching of sex hygiene to children.

The Minnesota Federation of Women's Clubs reports that—

for the last two years the health and hygiene committee has been chiefly concerned in disseminating information throughout the State concerning the prevention and spread of tuberculosis. In addition to sending out pamphlets, leaflets, etc., on tuberculosis to all federated clubs in the State, additional literature on the fly, the common drinking cup, and pure milk has been distributed.

Recently efforts have been confined to the support of bills pending in the legislature to appropriate money for county sanatoriums, where those suffering from this disease may be received and properly treated.

The committee is planning as the next immediate work a cooperative program with the State board of health in enforcing present laws and regulations concerning the welfare of children during infancy and the school period.

Dr. Rosa H. Gantt reports that—

The committee on public health education in South Carolina is teaching the people by means of lectures given to organizations of men and women, and also by lectures and exhibits to school children. In some instances the lectures are illustrated by stereopticon slides. Whenever possible, the moving-picture houses are used to attract people who will not attend a regular lecture. The newspapers in the State are supplied with articles on public health, which they very generously publish. The schools in Spartanburg County are supplied with stickers to be pasted in one or more books of each public-school child.

The sticker is entitled "How to Keep Well." The directions are given in a series of "Don'ts." I hope next year they will change this to a series of "Do's."

The Kentucky Federation of Women's Clubs prepared last year a bulletin on health topics, which was sent to all school-teachers, club members, ministers, and doctors throughout the State. Fly posters (21,000) were distributed in the State. Active work was undertaken with reference to establishing a law to abolish the common drinking cup and to establish a tuberculosis commission. The secretary, Mrs. M. Riker, says:

We are now sending out 7,000 letters, one to each club woman in the State, asking for help in the fight against hookworm disease. This work is done in cooperation with the State board of health.

The Georgia branch of the public health education committee of the American Medical Association reports that—

Through medical societies we have sought the appointment of a board of health, or at least a health officer in every town; of medical inspectors of schools, prisons, and almshouses; better drainage laws, especially in middle and lower Georgia, where we have 2,500,000 acres of wet lands; better regulation of birth and death registration. We have also arranged open meetings for the discussion of subjects of public health.

Through women's organizations we have urged systematic study of such subjects as food values, domestic economy, prevention of infant mortality, cause and prevention of common diseases of locality, as malaria, typhoid, hookworm, etc.; advantages of open-air homes and schools, importance of civics and sanitation. Also the women's clubs have rendered invaluable service in behalf of better child-labor laws and better housing conditions in factory and negro settlements.

The chairman, Dr. Cora B. Lattin, of the New York committee for public health education among women, reports—

that 36 counties of New York State are organized under county chairmen for securing lecturers and audiences, mainly in women's clubs, school organizations, teachers' institutes, granges, Woman's Christian Temperance Unions, and church organizations.

Two hundred and twenty-six lectures were given to audiences numbering about 25,000 people. In addition to the general lectures, an attempt has been made to secure individual drinking cups and towels in public places, to arouse interest in public-school inspection, open-air schools for defectives, segregation of defectives from regular classes in the schools, for the education of industrial workers, and in prevention of industrial diseases. In some of the counties county medical societies are actively cooperating in this work.

The Iowa Federation of Women's Clubs' health committee directed all the women's clubs associated in the federation last year to study the following health topics and to take such action as conditions in various localities called for:

The black plague and its control by quarantine; conservation of infant life and health; health contests and score cards. The work of inspection of schools and visiting nurses was directed along the lines of the following topics: Air, light, heat, ventilation, sanitation, dental hygiene, adenoids and tonsils, defects in sight and hearing, early detection of communicable diseases, teaching of sex hygiene based on biology (when teachers can be secured who are fitted by training and temperament to impart such instruction), the promotion of public play places outdoors and under cover, how to abolish the public drinking cup and what to substitute.

Other topics outlined for study were:

The fly as a carrier of disease and how to exterminate it; The board of health in my community, Is it living up to its scope and power? Tuberculosis; Sale by local merchants of the Red Cross Christmas seal; Study of city ordinances relating to slaughterhouses; Expectoration; Contagious diseases; Milk and its sale; Inspection of all places where goods are sold and stored; Drainage system and disposal of garbage; Inspection of public places, especially moving-picture theaters; Federal and State food inspection and sanitary provisions; The unventilated church as an extravagant waster of religious effort and a breeding place for germs; A study of divorce conditions and their relation to the health movement; A health special, a car fitted with appliances for the demonstration and teaching of human health to children and adults, such as that sent out by the Louisiana Board of Health; Clean food, sanitary score cards, and clean lists; The hospital plan for counties and communities.

The Educational Department of the Woman's Clinic, Washington, D. C., makes the following summary of its educational work along health lines:

This department was organized in the spring of 1911 to satisfy the growing demand for popular education on subjects of personal health, public sanitation, first aid in emergencies, and the means of preventing and combating disease. It is in charge of a special committee on education, Dr. D. S. Lamb, chairman.

In October a leaflet was issued setting forth the purposes of the department. The subjects offered were divided into five groups: First aid in emergencies; Contagious and infectious diseases; Physiology and hygiene of the child; Sex hygiene and education; and Miscellaneous. The names of 38 prominent physicians and scientists were announced as lecturers. Through the cooperation of the board of education and the superintendent of schools many calls were received for lectures from parent and teachers' associations. So great was the demand for these free popular health lectures that it was necessary to increase the number of lecturers.

During the school year of 1911-12, 160 lectures were given under the auspices of the Woman's Clinic to audiences aggregating over 9,500. The most popular subjects, judging from the demand, with parent and teachers' associations, mothers' clubs, and normal students were "Sex education" and "Social hygiene." Forty lectures were given by Drs. Elnora C. Folkmar, E. H. Egbert, and C Tignor on these topics. The next most popular group of subjects was that of "Child hygiene." A number of lectures were given on "How to prevent nervousness in the child," "The care of the teeth," and "The care of the eyes."

Several classes in "First aid in emergencies" were organized for boy scouts, camp-fire girls, and club women. The course comprised 12 lectures. Those who passed a satisfactory examination at the close of the course were granted a certificate by the American Red Cross Association.

For the general public a number of lectures were given at the Public Library under the combined auspices of the Woman's Clinic and the Medical Society of the District of Columbia. These lectures were given by men in the Government bureaus or by physicians from outside the District. The subjects treated were: "Pure and adulterated foods," "Patent medicines and nostrums," "Prevention of typhoid fever," "The mad dog and its bite," "Hookworm disease," "Open-air schools for tubercular children," and "Social hygiene." Among the lecturers were: Drs. Lumsden, Stiles, Stimson, Warren, of the Public Health Service; Drs. Bigelow and Kebler, of the Bureau of Chemistry, and Dr. Prince A. Morrow, of New York City.

For the school year 1912-13 the most demanded subjects are those of "Sex education and sex hygiene." Next to these is the call for lectures on the "Care of nervous children." This year the calls are coming from the same class of organizations as last, and in addition from a number of church groups.

On invitation of the public health education committee of the American Medical Association the educational work of the Woman's Clinic was affiliated with the educational work of the American Medical Association.

STATE BOARDS OF HEALTH.

The State boards of health have in the past few years turned their attention largely to educational campaigns. They realize that, while they must continue to quarantine and forcibly control epidemics of communicable diseases, in the long run general education in sanitation is far more effective.

As typical instances of their educational work the following are cited:

Dr. W. S. Rankin, secretary of the North Carolina State Board of Health, states that his board uses education as a means of doing public health work in four ways:

First. This department issues a Monthly Bulletin. We have 40,000 names on our mailing list, and reach about one-seventh of the white families in the State. We also get out during the year a teachers' edition of the bulletin. We have on our mailing list about 8,000 of the 10,000 public school teachers of North Carolina. We recognize that a permanent foundation for a sanitary civilization can be built in the pliable minds of childhood.

Second. This office issues weekly and daily newspaper articles on questions of public health. These articles are sent to all of the newspapers in the State, and about 60 or 65 per cent of them are used. Through the cordial cooperation

of the State Press Association this office is having distributed to the newspaper-reading public of North Carolina about 200 miles of newspaper column health literature each year.

Third. A great many addresses on health subjects are delivered to the school teachers' meetings in this State. In one county of North Carolina the county medical society has arranged a series of health lectures to be given by the various members of the county medical society before every school in the county. Before the school year has expired most of these schools will have heard sanitary addresses from the medical men of their county on all the important preventable diseases.

Fourth. We are using all the influence we can bring to bear upon the school people of the State to teach the subject of sanitation and hygiene to the children; we are stressing these subjects as being more important than physiology or anatomy.

Finally, we recognize that 90 per cent of our work at present is of an educational character, and that we seek the cooperation of all school people in the task of teaching people how to live.

An interesting experiment in connection with the State Board of Health of Minnesota was reported by Dr. H. B. Wood, of Rochester, Minn. He states that:

Upon my own initiative a number of investigations have been made in the rural schools. Of 303 rural-school children examined, 80, or 26 per cent, showed physical defects needing correction, exclusive of eye conditions. Of those tested for vision, in 19 per cent glasses were recommended. Only about 3 per cent of the rural-school children were vaccinated. At the rural schools a few talks on hygiene were given. The typical school of this region which is situated wholly in the country, may be described as follows: "A one-room painted frame house, on elevated or exposed ground which has been donated by some farmer who could not use the ground for other purposes; without trees or exterior decorations; without adequate water supply, a pail of water being carried from the nearest farm, and one-half the schools using individual cups, the other half drinking from common dippers; a few schools with basins for washing but without towels; open-box toilets, usually in good repair and moderately clean; ample window space; ample desk room with sufficient small seats and desks; with black painted, wooden blackboards, some using chalk and others crayon; a large stove burning wood, with surrounding iron shield in some cases; a few portraits of notable Americans and maps; and some walls showing an array of drawings made by the pupils." The 136 strictly rural schools have an average attendance of approximately 17 scholars, some of whom walk 2 miles to school. Each school is located to accommodate 4½ square miles. No books are used for teaching hygiene, but the teachers are supposed to give talks upon such information as they obtain from physiology books.

Throughout this investigation certain educational talks were given, and conferences were held to bring to the attention of teachers and pupils the lessons of hygiene through environment.

MUNICIPAL HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS, COMMISSIONS, BOARDS, ETC.

Probably all of the larger cities have regularly and legally constituted boards of health, and in addition other voluntary organiza-

tions whose purpose is to secure more wholesome sanitary conditions. The work of those herein cited will illustrate their general educational attempts in this direction.

The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, through its superintendent, Mrs. H. Ingram, has furnished the following information with reference to health education as carried on by this association:

The relief department reaches through the year 11,000 families. These are families where advice and material assistance are needed. In 40 per cent sickness is the cause of distress; and the visitors and nurses must, therefore, constantly advise both remedial and preventive measures.

The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor entered definitely, 70 years ago, on a campaign against the social causes of poverty, and to-day has a definite concrete answer for this question as applied to each cause of poverty, an answer which calls upon all the activities of the association itself and upon all the resources of the agencies which in city and State offer their helpful cooperation.

Where sickness causes poverty, the visitor arranges for medical examination, diagnosis, advice, and treatment, for hospital or sanatorium care if the physician so recommends, or for home care of the patient by a visiting nurse who also instructs some members of the family in the simple method of nursing. When the illness is temporary and the patient reaches the convalescent stage, arrangements are made for a visit at a convalescent home. When the illness is of a contagious nature, proper precautions are taken, in cooperation with the department of health, to prevent its spread. When the illness is chronic or incurable, a suitable hospital or institution may be found for permanent cure, or home care can be systematized and lightened by the provision of needed appliances, wheel chair, couch, crutches, or cushions.

From the beginning the well members of the family are guarded from too close contact with the patient, and their general health is fortified by good food and nurse's advice. If the illness has attacked the breadwinner, the lowered income is supplemented in such measure that it may not result in lowered vitality. If the illness is bringing a new baby to the home, the mother has the care and instruction of a visiting nurse, a specialist in maternity cases, and mother and infant go to Caroline Rest, the association's beautiful Hartsdale Home, which is its "school for mothers," to grow well and strong and to form those habits of good, sensible care and living which after the return home will go far toward maintaining the health of the whole family.

If the illness has been induced by insanitary surroundings or unhealthy working conditions, a change of residence, to better rooms or from city to suburbs, is effected, or a change of occupation to healthier employment.

But the association has from its earliest days done larger things toward the cure and prevention of disease and the preservation of health than the care given to individual families. Its epochs of advance show the following results accomplished through its plans and efforts:

- 1845. Housing conditions investigated.
- 1848. Plans for model tenements distributed.
- 1851. Demilt Dispensary founded.
- 1852. Northwestern Dispensary founded.
 - Public washing and bathing establishments built.
- 1857. Investigation into defective dwellings, sewerage, and filthy streets.

- 1860. Popular lectures on hygiene.
- 1862. Hospital for Ruptured and Cripples founded.
- 1864. Pure-milk legislation secured.
- 1865. Special sanitary methods to check cholera epidemics.
- 1878. Cooperation with board of health in tenement-house inspection.
- 1883. Fresh-air parties to Coney Island begun.
- 1891. People's Baths built, the city's first public bath.
- 1892. Sea Breeze Fresh-Air Home started.
- 1896. City and Suburban Homes Co. organized.
- 1902. Three municipal baths established.
- 1904. Milbank Memorial Bath opened.
Sea Breeze Hospital opened for children with nonpulmonary tuberculosis, the first American experiment in seaside open-air treatment for crippled children.
- 1906. Committee on physical welfare of school children.
Junior Sea Breeze opened.
\$250,000 raised for a seaside hospital.
- 1907. Caroline Rest for convalescent mothers founded at Hartsdale, N. Y.
Home instruction by visiting nurses.
- 1908. Seven milk depots opened, with 36 Mothers' Conferences.
Home visiting from dispensaries started.
- 1910. Instruction to mothers on recreation piers in diet and hygiene.
- 1912. Home Hospital opened. An experiment in the care of 20 tubercular families, housed in a city model tenement, combining the comforts and advantages of both home and hospital.

The whole fresh-air campaign of the association—five Sea Breeze months during the summer and Caroline Rest opened during the entire year, Sea Breeze Hospital with its 43 little patients and the Home Hospital with its 20 families—has for its object not only the return to normal health following sickness, but that physical upbuilding which prevents illness and wards off its recurrence.

The Caroline Rest and School for Mothers was founded and endowed by Mr. George H. F. Schrader in honor of his mother, and is under the management of this society. Its purpose is to receive and furnish poor mothers a chance to rest and recuperate after confinement. Any case of maternity reported to the Caroline Rest nurses will be visited and helped until the arrival of the infant, and after the mother is able to be up. In order that a mother may not be worried about the other children, all under 10 are brought with her. The mothers receive instruction in sewing, cooking, personal and home hygiene, and in all that has to do with better home life. The older children who come with their mothers have an ideal diet, special health care, and a great farm in the open country to roam. The women are from the very poorest parts of New York City. At present 30 families are cared for. While the direct educational influence of this Rest reaches a comparatively small number, its indirect influence will be very great. It is an ideal home, out in the clean air and sunshine of the country.

In December, 1912, the *Rochester Public Health Association*, through the cooperation of various agencies, conducted a health

week, during which meetings were held afternoons and evenings, and various subjects concerning health were discussed. Surveys of factories have been made, mainly for the purpose of discovering tuberculosis among the employees; the association has distributed literature championing the cause of medical inspection of school children; has secured the passage of local ordinances forbidding the sweeping of sidewalks during hours when the public are going to work; has prevented the displays of food in the street before groceries and markets, and has abolished the common drinking cup and towel. It cooperates with the moving-picture houses by furnishing lantern slides, designed to educate the public in matters of health, and gives many illustrated lectures with stereopticon outfit before labor organizations, fraternal bodies, mothers' clubs, etc.

The Visiting Nurse Association of Detroit reports through its superintendent, Mrs. L. E. Gretter, that for 1912 they employed 16 graduated nurses, who ministered to and instructed in 2,130 homes; treated 4,673 patients in dispensaries, and made 27,074 visits. Instruction included practical demonstrations in personal hygiene and cleanliness, bathing, ventilation, bed-making, preparation and care of food, care of mothers and new-born babies, prevention and treatment of ophthalmia, and proper dressing of infants and children. Sanitation of homes, back yards, and other premises was taught. They gave 622 mothers guidance in proportion of milk for babies. Specific instructions were also given to 1,703 tuberculous patients.

The Visiting Nurse Society of Philadelphia, in its annual report for 1912, modestly states that "the object of this society is to give to the poor and to those of moderate means the best home nursing possible under the circumstances." This society has been in existence 26 years, and, judging from its detailed report of the past year's work, has earned the gratitude of many homes for kindly help and instruction in time of need. The nurses employed made 73,231 visits during the year, and helped in many ways, besides nursing the sick, to make life more enjoyable to those in distress.

The Providence Nursing Association, established 10 years ago, seeks to provide trained nurses whose duty it is to visit persons deprived of proper care, to care for them in their homes, to give them such attention as is imperatively needed, and to instruct members of the household in the simple rules of hygiene. This association is for the benefit of the public, and no society or physician has any special claim on it. During the year 1911, 5,776 cases were attended and over 70,000 visits made.

The Milwaukee Child-Welfare Commission was authorized in May, 1911, by the common council of that city to study conditions which affect the lives of children and to formulate plans for saving the lives of babies. The chairman of this commission is Dr. John M. Beffel,

and he has furnished the following condensed account of its remedial and educational work:

(1) The establishment of a child-welfare station with four nurses in attendance, one of whom is the head nurse. These nurses devote their whole time to the work of a small district in the Fourteenth ward, comprising 33 blocks, with a population in which there were 400 mothers with babies under 1 year of age. The station was centrally located and the mothers with babies under 1 year of age were organized into classes, each class meeting on a definite day the same physician week after week. Here the mothers were taught by the doctors and nurses the general lessons of hygiene and the care of the baby.

(2) The nurses of the station made as many calls on as many babies under 1 year of age as possible. It was found that one nurse could visit approximately 100 babies a week. During the year from September 1, 1911, to September 1, 1912, the nurses of the child-welfare station made over 21,000 calls, observing and recording on a carefully printed questionnaire the facts obtained from their visits; thus at the end of a year a large amount of material was gathered which is now being investigated and compiled by Mr. W. C. Phillips, former secretary of the child-welfare commission.

(3) The midwives of the district were organized and taught by physicians in the district and others the general points which are so essential for these women to know.

(4) The physicians of the neighborhood were also organized and assisted enthusiastically in the work throughout the whole year. The station had a very decided influence upon the physicians of the district, even to such an extent that one of them has gone to New York for special work in children's diseases.

(5) The public was informed along special lines through editorials in the daily papers, all daily papers in the city publishing an editorial on child-welfare work. These editorials appeared daily and simultaneously and were written by a physician under the direction and supervision of the child-welfare commission.

(6) Numerous lectures on child-welfare work were given throughout the year before various civic and philanthropic clubs of the city; as a result of all of this a great amount of public sentiment was stirred up in favor of child-welfare work.

At present the child-welfare work is done wholly under the direction and supervision of the health department. An ordinance was passed making the child-welfare work a subordinate work of the health department, and each position in the work was provided for in this special resolution, naming salaries paid to each worker. This was necessary in order to legalize the work. As a result of the year's work in the district the actual number of deaths among babies under 1 year of age during the year mentioned was reduced from 68 to 48, an actual decrease of practically 33½ per cent. The death rate in this whole ward for babies under 1 year of age, in proportion to the births, was 15 per cent, whereas in the year mentioned this death rate was cut to 10 per cent in the 33 blocks in which the child-welfare work was done.

The Division of Child Hygiene of the Department of Health of the City of New York represents a forward movement in the health care of the children in the larger cities. The functions of this division of the department are stated by the director, Dr. Josephine Baker, as follows:

(1) The control and supervision of midwives; (2) the reduction of infant mortality; (3) the supervision of foundling babies boarded out in private homes;

(4) the inspection and sanitary supervision of day nurses; (5) the inspection of institutions harboring dependent children; (6) the medical inspection and examination of school children; (7) the vaccination of school children; (8) the enforcement of that part of the child-labor law which relates to the issuing of employment certificates.

It is impossible to give any concise or complete account of the educational work of this department; it covers such a broad field and furnishes so many opportunities for teaching the people better care of their children that it will be unnecessary to attempt to speak in detail of this work. By study of the report of this division to the health authorities of the city, it is practically obvious that a larger emphasis is placed on preventive measures than on mere cure. Specific directions are furnished to all the institutions and agencies cooperating with this division, and in this way much information is disseminated and great good must necessarily result.

The question of whether medical inspection and examination of school children should come under the control of the board of health or the board of education is still an open one, but the trend is directly in favor of bringing this division of the city's health under the control of the board of education, in cooperation with the department of health.

The South End House Women's Residence, of Boston, is devoting its energies to health education under the following divisions:

(1) Prenatal instruction in its various phases for expectant mothers and fathers, in informal classes at the House and in visits to the home. (2) Weekly conferences for mothers with babies from 2 weeks to 2 years old. (3) Physical examination of children of kindergarten age. The nurse visits in the homes; instructs parents as to preventive and curative measures. (4) Cooperation with the city school nurse and city visitor in preventing the spread of pediculosis. (5) Personally conducting groups of young people to hear regular series of health talks given in hospitals and dispensaries in the neighborhood. (6) Giving talks to mothers' clubs on personal health, home nursing, care and feeding of children.

The committee on infant social service of the *Women's Municipal League of Boston*, reports that its work is principally devoted to prenatal care, which is given by a graduate nurse under medical supervision.

The work of the nurse in general is under our direction, but she carries out the physician's orders for individual cases.

Our practice is to visit every case at least once in 10 days, however well the patient may be, and as much oftener as is necessary if there is anything unfavorable in her condition. Directions are given to the patient with regard to her diet, exercise, work, clothing, and general mode of life. The nurse instructs the patient in the importance to her child of the care of her own health and also gives her advice with regard to the care of the baby after birth. We have a set of baby's clothes, a basket, mattress, etc., but our principal effort is devoted to giving prenatal care to the patient herself, for the sake of the

baby, for we believe that to be more important to the child than any later care. We also find that the nurse is often successful in persuading mothers to keep their babies with them when they had previously intended to board them out.

We do not confine ourselves absolutely to prenatal conditions, but we are at present endeavoring to have the care of babies made a part of the course in household economics for the girls of the seventh and eight grades of the grammar schools.

The Infant Welfare Society of Chicago undertakes to "keep babies well by advice, by encouraging breastfeeding, by instructions to the mothers in the rules of hygiene, and by furnishing certified milk below cost." In their annual report for the year ending December 31, 1911, their educational work is summarized in the following directions to mothers and nurses:

Mothers, nurse your babies. The greatest good you can do your children is to nurse them during the first year.

Nurse your baby only four times during the day: at 6 a. m., 10 a. m., 2 p. m., 6 p. m. and once at night. If the infant cries between feedings, give it some boiled water. A baby cries oftener from thirst than from hunger.

Dress your baby only in loose-fitting clothes, so that it can move its arms and legs.

The baby should have only one feeding between 6 o'clock at night and 6 o'clock in the morning.

The baby ought to sleep alone.

The best and safest way to raise your baby is to nurse it.

Ten bottle-fed babies die to one that is breast fed.

Before weaning the baby come to an infant welfare station.

Do not pick up the baby each time that it cries. Teach it from the beginning to be content alone.

The baby must have a tub bath every day, and in very warm days sponged with cool water once or twice daily.

Do not feed the baby anything that the doctor has not prescribed.

Keep your milk bottles in the icebox or in cold water.

Use a fresh bottle for each feeding. Do not pour the milk into another bottle. Warm bottles before feeding the baby.

All nipples and bottles should be cleaned and boiled once each day. Keep the nipples dry, in a clean covered glass.

Do not feed the baby oftener than every four hours. The stomach must have a chance to rest or the baby will get sick.

An overfed baby is usually an irritable, crying baby. A normal baby sleeps from 18 to 20 hours a day. The more fresh air and sunshine the baby gets, the better it will sleep.

Keep the windows open all day and all night, except during the heat of the midday sun.

Screen your windows and doors, as flies are carriers of disease. Many cases of summer diarrhea are due to germs carried by flies. Keep decaying vegetables and fruits covered; garbage attracts flies.

Have the baby vaccinated when a few months old.

If the baby has diarrhea stop all food, give only boiled water, and see your doctor immediately.

The Infant Welfare Association of New Haven, Conn., undertakes the following work, as outlined by its secretary, Mrs. Eleanor C. Daggett:

The aim of the Infant Welfare Association is the training of mothers to the intelligent care of their infant children. To this end the methods were entirely changed in 1912, and instead of maintaining milk stations as in three former years, where milk was put up and distributed at certain hours at a nominal price, conferences were held regularly, from May 1 to October 1, in four localities to which mothers brought their babies for weighing and inspection and were carefully and thoroughly taught to put up the formulas indicated by the doctor in charge of the conference. Nurses followed each mother into her home and closely inspected her care of utensils, method of preparing the formula, and advised her as to where to buy her milk and how to care for the baby in every respect. Mothers were encouraged to nurse their babies where possible and were taught the principles of diet.

From October 1 to May 1 conferences are held in two quarters of the city, and the time of one nurse is given to following up the babies on the list during the summer months, and also to prenatal work among expectant mothers.

On May 1, 1913, the summer schedule will be resumed, and the four conferences resumed, and a large list of babies will be carried.

The educational work for 1912 of the *New York Diet Kitchen Association* was reported by Maria L. Daniels, the superintendent, as follows:

During 1912 the New York Diet Kitchen carried on a large amount of instructional and educational work through the doctors, nurses, and matrons connected with its nine milk stations or "kitchens," which are located in various congested sections of the city.

All those who come to the stations for milk are taught the value and advantage of good milk and are instructed in its proper care and handling, but the two main features of the educational work are the conferences for mothers and babies held at the stations and the visits of the nurses and matrons, who act as assistants to the nurses, in the homes for the purpose of following up the instructions given to the mothers at the conferences.

Throughout the winter these conferences were held weekly in the smaller "kitchens" and twice or three times weekly in those having a larger number of babies under their care, while in the summer the conferences were held more frequently in all stations, and in the two heaviest stations every week day.

At the conferences, of which the doctors have charge, the babies are examined and weighed, and their condition at every visit noted on a weight chart kept for each child, while the mothers are instructed in the proper feeding and care of their babies, if they are bottle fed, or encouraged in and taught the value of breast feeding in every case where such feeding is advisable or possible.

In case of illness of a baby the nurses will not only give it any treatment prescribed for it by doctor or dispensary, but will also teach the mother the proper method of preparing or giving such treatment when the baby is left to her care.

This instruction in the home is not limited to the care of the baby, but includes advice or instruction in the care of the older children or invalids, household hygiene, or anything else tending toward the improvement or elevation of family life.

The Infant Welfare Department of Duluth Consistory, Scottish Rite Masons, has furnished the following account of their work:

For three years we have engaged a first-class nurse. This nurse visits the homes and gives instruction to the mothers and, where possible, gives prenatal instruction of great value. She then shows the mothers how to care for the infants, advises with them as to their food, and when necessary secures a physician's attendance. She holds what is called mothers' meetings quite frequently, at which the babies are weighed and a record kept of their weight. She talks to the women and sometimes a number of girls drop in. These meetings are held in neighborhood centers, sometimes in the basement of a church, or wherever possible. She also has meetings for what we call the "little mothers"; that is, the little girls who in so many cases are intrusted with the care of still younger ones.

A summary of the work done by the *Boston Chamber of Commerce*, through its committee on prevention of disease, is stated by its assistant secretary, Mr. John W. Plaisted, as follows:

This committee made reports to the directors at various times on (1) the causes and prevention of common colds, (2) a plan for increasing the longevity of life insurance policy holders, and (3) infant mortality and the proper registration of births and deaths. At the time when the committee ceased active work it had in preparation a long and detailed report on the hygienic requirements of industrial establishments. This report included studies of ventilation, heating, humidity, and various other elements affecting health in factories, workshops, stores, etc.

Educational work in connection with these reports was done mainly along the line of publicity regarding the causes and prevention of common colds. The committee secured the publication of a number of articles in the daily papers of the city and also in some of the current magazines, and issued a small placard giving a few practical suggestions on the subject.

After study of the situation as to infant mortality and registration of births and deaths in Boston and the State generally, the committee decided that the laws then in existence on the subject were not adequate and so advocated the strengthening of those laws to a considerable extent. The committee also advocated more careful supervision of the care of infants during the first few weeks after birth, with a view to preventing blindness. The result of the committee's campaign was the passage in 1912 of laws covering both these subjects.

One of the most useful features of the work of this committee, and one directly in the educational line, was the committee's activity in the establishment of preventive clinics, so called, in various industrial establishments in and about Boston. The committee believed that much time lost in industrial establishments through illness could be saved by a study of the workers and advice to them in the early stages of illness which might prevent any serious consequences. The committee, therefore, advocated the employment of a nurse either part or all of the time by establishments large enough to bear the expense, and also arranged to secure the attendance of a physician, in a room provided for the purpose, one hour or more each week, the physician making examinations of employees who showed symptoms of illness and advising them as to the proper methods for combating it. As a result of the work of the committee some 7 or 8 such clinics were established, and indirectly it is believed that a large number of other establishments were induced to adopt the same plan. Most of the factories and stores with which the committee worked now employ a nurse

during practically the full working time of their employees and have a doctor in attendance one or more hours a week. The establishments which have adopted this plan believe thoroughly that it pays and report a considerable improvement in the health of their employees, though many of the employees are rather backward about reporting illnesses to the nurse or physician.

The committee compiled the following hints on How to Avoid Common Colds and published these in the interest of public health:

Common colds are contagious. They are caused by germs. You catch cold just as you catch diphtheria. The germs of colds are spread from the nose and mouth of one person to another.

Drafts, wet feet, chilling of the body, and sudden changes of temperature will not in themselves cause a cold. (Stiff neck and other muscular pains are not here included.) These conditions may weaken the body, help the germs, favor the development of colds, and make them worse. But it is worth noting that Arctic explorers never suffer from colds until they become infected from their fellow men on their return to civilization.

Do not get close to others who have colds.

Do not use handkerchiefs, towels, cups, etc., that have been used by people who have colds. Even though you do get your cold from your neighbor, do not pass it on.

Do not sneeze or cough except into your handkerchief.

Do not spit on the floor; to do so may spread colds, tuberculosis, and other diseases.

Do not neglect a cold. It may lead to serious complications. During the first few days, if you have fever, stay in bed. This will help you and protect others from getting your cold. Take a laxative and use simple household remedies. If these do not help you, call a doctor.

You will be able to resist the germs causing colds if you keep your body in good condition.

Breathe pure air; avoid dust; take regular exercise; get plenty of sleep and rest; eat wholesome food; and do not sit for long hours in a stuffy, close room.

Colds come from the bacteria in your mouth, teeth, nose, and throat; therefore keep these parts clean.

The Atlanta Chamber of Commerce, through its committee on health, has been instrumental during the last three years in furthering the work of the Rockefeller Commission for the Eradication of Hookworm Disease, in helping to introduce medical and dental inspection of school children in the city and country, in a movement to secure better housing conditions of the negroes, in interesting the children of the public schools in securing clean-up pledges from the citizens (30,000 pledges secured), and in educating the public in the prevention and cure of tuberculosis.

The public health department of the *Social League of Middletown, Conn.*, directs its efforts along three lines:

(1) *The Sanitary Investigation and Improvement of Housing Conditions.*—In the spring of 1910 our regular social worker obtained permission from the city officials to act as a deputy of the city health officer in the investigation of housing conditions in certain sections of the city. Her report revealed such a need of improvement and regular investigations that the city council passed

an order requiring an investigation of the entire city at regular intervals. This is now done by an officer at city expense, and as a result many insanitary conditions have been remedied.

(2) *Improvement of the Present Method of Disposing of Refuse.*—The attempt to enforce the city ordinance requiring the separate disposal of ashes, garbage, and paper was unsuccessful, as the public objected to the extra trouble caused, and the ordinance was rescinded. The league has not given up the fight, however, and by gradually educating public opinion hopes finally to introduce a better method of disposal than the present insanitary one of mixing garbage with ashes and other refuse on city dumps.

(3) *The Reduction of Infant Mortality.*—For three years the league has tried to diminish the number of babies dying from preventable causes by the operation of modified milk stations and the instruction of mothers in the care of their babies. During the last two summers a trained nurse has had charge of this work, and valuable service has been given in educating the mothers how to care for their own health and that of their children.

The Bureau of Industries and Immigration of the Department of Labor of the State of New York, through its secretary of education, is preparing articles for the newspapers of the State relating to the health, the transportation, employment, and swindling of the immigrants in the State. One of the duties of the bureau is to oversee the labor camps, and through placards and pamphlets in foreign languages to improve the sanitation of such camps and to teach the workers better care of their health.

ANTITUBERCULOSIS LEAGUES, ASSOCIATIONS, AND ORGANIZATIONS.

The Cincinnati Anti-Tuberculosis League reports that for 1912 they received \$30,728, which was used in establishing dispensaries, day camps, in exhibitions, school instruction, sanitary surveys, publishing a journal on outdoor life, developing a moving-picture film entitled "Darkest Cincinnati," holding mass meetings, utilizing a press agent, etc. Growing out of such work the following results may be mentioned: A vacation ordinance, promise of a larger and more efficient sanitary force, police court fines for noncompliance with sanitary orders, promise of a housing association, better provision for tuberculosis hospital accommodations, and many other improvements.

The following figures will illustrate the extensiveness of the work done by this league:

42,178 children in public and parochial schools addressed.

3,037 children attended day camp.

406,293 people attended exhibits.

282,600 pieces of educational literature distributed.

228 columns of educational matter in daily press.

6,373 visits made by nurses to homes.

The Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis gives through its publications a great amount of advice and direc-

tions regarding the prevention of consumption. In one of its publications entitled, "A War upon Consumption," it tells the people of Boston that:

Consumption causes more than a thousand deaths in Boston every year. But able physicians tell us that, if we follow certain directions, we can help to stamp out this disease.

Consumption is not inherited. It does not belong to our climate. It is very often cured. It is actually on the decrease.

Consumption is usually carried by the poison which comes from the consumptive's sputum, or spit. Sick persons should take care to burn their spit, or put it into the water-closet.

The trouble now is that consumptives spit upon the floor or in the street.

The poisonous sputum then dries and goes as dust into other people's lungs. A little spit is enough, when scattered in dust, to infect dozens of people.

They also issue a warning to those who have weak lungs. They say in this connection that:

Dust and smoky or dusty places are bad. Dark, damp, or crowded rooms are bad.

Dirty shops and stores, dirty saloons and dance halls, dusty kinds of business, like marble-cutting, sorting feathers, or making cigars, are bad for weak lungs. To sit bent over one's sewing or other work is bad.

Self-indulgence and intemperance are very bad. Vice which weakens the strong kills the weak.

They further attempt to teach that plenty of fresh air prevents consumption; that it is the duty of the people to choose sunny rooms; that if a consumptive is moved out of a room it should be disinfected before occupied by others; that outdoor work is vastly better than indoor work; to engage in deep, full breathing for several minutes in the morning and at night, in order to develop the chest capacity.

They advise people to spend money for simple, well-cooked food, and urge them to spend no money for liquors or for quack medicines.

They do their work in connection with the other agencies in Boston designed to aid in this fight and in the general propaganda of health.

Chicago Tuberculosis Institute has undertaken during the past two years the following special lines of work:

It has prepared a very complete exhibit in regard to tuberculosis, and for this has spent over \$3,000. This exhibit will be displayed in various parts of Chicago for the next two or three years; and during these exhibits, lectures, discussions, and conferences will be held, attempting to interest and instruct each locality in the prevention of tuberculous infection.

The other part of its work consists of a campaign for the introduction of medical examination of employees in industrial concerns. Its plan for the examination of employees is as follows:

1. A physician examines all suspicious cases among the employees. The physician not only determines whether the man individually is

infected or not, but gives instructions to the sick in the essentials of treatment of those who seem to be predisposed to this disease. During the noon hour or the evening the entire working force of the establishment are gathered together for a brief discussion of health topics.

2. Trained nurses are employed to assist the physician in the examination of the workers. In addition, the nurses are instructed to visit and study the homes and living conditions of the employees and to instruct the family in the fundamentals of right living, and especially in the methods of the care and prevention of this disease.

This plan has been put in operation in some of the largest shops and manufacturing establishments in Chicago.

This association has set for its watchwords in connection with its work, *Education, Detection, and Control*. It is expecting the work of its physicians and nurses to be, to a great extent, educational, and to extend beyond the factory, office, or store into the homes of the employees. With this idea in view, the association says:

Education in right living will tend toward the improvement of the state of resistance in the majority of these cases and is bound to reflect itself in the attitude of the entire working force toward the problem of health.

The St. Louis Society for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis was organized in 1907 by uniting two former associations having for their purpose similar work. In addition to the regular educational work such societies are undertaking throughout the country, it is especially noticeable that this society has given special attention to the establishment and maintenance of open-air schools. The first school of this sort was opened the 24th of August, 1911, with 9 children; in a short time 25 children were in attendance and 71 on the waiting list. The schoolhouse is built in the form of a pavilion. In addition to their work in connection with their open-air schools, through their nurses they come in contact with the homes, with the various clinics in the city hospitals and church missions of one sort or another.

The educational purposes of this society may be summarized as follows: To maintain a system of visiting nurses, to teach people to seek more sanitary homes, and, in general, to teach the people the dangers of tuberculosis and the necessary information they should have to guard against an attack, or to submit to proper treatment in the incipient stages of the disease.

The San Francisco Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis is directing its educational work through large display cards placed in various sections of the city, through a flasher placed

in the Union Station, and by lecture work. The chairman of the educational committee, Dr. W. C. Voorsanger, says:

We have a very fine slide collection of local, eastern, and foreign material. We try to give lectures not so much in our own building as in various sections of the city, and before various clubs and civic organizations. We find that public lectures are poorly attended, but that lectures given before a different section of the city or a "neighborhood" lecture always draws a large crowd. We are doing considerable work in the schools, both with the children through their teachers and through public lectures, and also to the parents in the evening at various stated times. To illustrate, this month there will be three evening lectures on "Tuberculosis," one in the city here and two across the bay, in Oakland, each in different auditoriums.

Through the initiative and influence of the *Texas Anti-Tuberculosis Association*, Gov. Colquitt, of that State, called the Southwestern Conference on Tuberculosis, which met at Waco, Tex., April 16 and 17, 1912.

This conference was called—

to consider ways and means of aiding poor consumptives of other States who go to Arizona, California, Colorado, Kansas, Nevada, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Utah, in the hope that a change of climate may be beneficial to them.

At the close of this conference the following resolutions were adopted, and deserve widespread attention in order to acquaint those who go to these States for relief with difficulties to be encountered:

A resolution declaring the care of tuberculosis strangers in the Southwest to be an interstate problem, and calling upon the Federal Government to convert abandoned forts and military reservations in the Southwest into tuberculosis sanatoria.

A resolution advocating publicity as to the lack of free hospitals for stranger consumptives in the Southwest; the inability of charity organizations to aid such; the difficulty of securing suitable employment; that consumptives coming to the Southwest should have funds sufficient to carry them for about one year.

A resolution declaring that institutions for the care of consumptives are necessary in the prevention of tuberculosis and calling upon the legislatures of the Southwestern States to provide same.

A resolution declaring that tuberculosis can not be eliminated without improving living and working conditions and describing legislation necessary to secure such improvement.

The Anti-Tuberculosis Committee of One Hundred, of Winston-Salem, N. C., outlines its health services to the community, as follows: To provide and impart instruction and give relief to tuberculous persons in their homes and to their dependents or family, in order that they may understand and practice the care and caution that is needed to restore health and prevent further infection. This instruction is provided through printed matter, personal visits by nurses and other members of the committee.

The committee also provides lecturers who present to school, church, and other public organizations the latest information on the methods and means for prevention of this disease.

This committee also is attempting to make a general health survey of the living conditions of its people and, where the need is evident, to instruct them in personal hygiene and sanitation. The schools are visited and studied from the health point of view, and where needed the public is notified with reference to the conditions under which the children are working.

The work of the *Massachusetts Hospitals for Consumptives*, established under the act of 1907, is attracting a great deal of attention. The educational work of the board of trustees is set forth in their Public Document No. 77, published in 1912, as follows:

During the year 1911 the educational work of the board has steadily increased. As in the past, bulletins have been sent out every two weeks to nearly 200 newspapers in the State. Many letters touching on every phase of the tuberculosis question have been written to physicians, patients, and their friends and antituberculosis workers, not only in Massachusetts but all over the country. The office of the board has become an information bureau to which patients, physicians, and others are constantly coming to interview the secretary of the board in regard to the sanatoria and other questions connected with the work. Literature in the way of reports, reprints, instructive pamphlets, pay-envelope cards, etc., are kept on hand for distribution. Members of the board, the four superintendents, and the secretary have given lectures to large numbers of people on the general subject of tuberculosis, and the four superintendents have given many informal talks on this subject to their patients. The *Journal of the State Sanatoria*, a monthly paper published at the Rutland State Sanatorium, in addition to giving items of news from the four sanatoria, contains numerous articles of interest and value not only to patients but to their friends and to the public at large. This paper is distributed to the patients, anti-tuberculosis associations, physicians, and to many others who have asked that their names be put upon the mailing list.

They also employ school tuberculosis exhibits to educate the children and the parents throughout the State in all matters pertaining to the prevention and cure of this disease. They state in a special pamphlet, printed in 1910, that the object of the exhibit is more to demonstrate:

1. That there is a right and a wrong way of living.
2. That fresh air day and night, cleanliness, exercise, and wholesome food are essential not only in the treatment of consumption but are more important still in avoiding consumption and in maintaining that condition of health which will ward off disease.
3. That consumption is itself rarely inherited, but that it is a disease usually due to carelessness and ignorance.
4. That people working and living under proper conditions need not worry about getting consumption.
5. That prevention is better than cure, and that good physical health is more precious than much knowledge.

The California Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis is the parent body of component affiliated societies, located in Oakland, Los Angeles, Pasadena, Redlands, Riverside,

Sacramento, San Diego, San Francisco, San Jose, San Rafael, Stockton, Sierra Madre, Santa Ana, and Pacific Grove. The purpose of this society is to carry on a State-wide publicity campaign, and to have lecturers in the field at all times, teaching the people, both in the city and country, how to prevent the spread of tuberculosis and how to treat those who are infected.

California has an especially peculiar work to do in this connection, due to the fact that so many infected people go to the State, especially to the southern part, hoping thereby to get relief from this disease. This tends to bring the people of California into contact with a great many cases of tuberculosis, and hence, despite the special advantages of the climate, the people are realizing that only through effective educational work can the health standards of the State be maintained. Illustrative lectures, given before teachers, institutions, and general audiences and in connection with the public schools, have been of great service in helping the situation there.

Dr. M. G. Overlock, State inspector of health of the eleventh Massachusetts district, summarizes his work in connection with industrial establishments in the following words:

The work began by a series of lectures at the noon hour to the employees of the large industrial establishments on personal hygiene and preventive medicine. Later these lectures were given on Sunday evenings and such other evenings through the week when audiences could be gotten together in different parts of the State, as well as in different parts of New England and several of the Eastern States. The second part of the plan consisted in getting the manufacturers to agree to pay the \$4 per week required of all who would enter a sanatorium if found ill with tuberculosis.

The great value of this movement from an educational standpoint is that hundreds of patients are being cured under this movement in the different sanatoriums and sent back into the community in which they live as teachers of personal hygiene and sanitation. They become centers of good health instead of centers of infection. Another point is that it raises in the mind of the manufacturers this question: What are the elements at work in my establishment which are productive of tuberculosis, and how can I best remedy it? It teaches the manufacturer that, where proper hygienic surroundings are in vogue, tuberculosis will not thrive. It attracts the attention of the employee to the neglected cold and slight cough, and tells him that an early examination of the chest and sputum is much better and safer than the drug-store treatment of these seemingly slight matters which if taken early can be cured. By publishing the letters from day to day in the daily press it keeps alive the interest of the public and societies for the prevention of tuberculosis, thereby enlisting their cooperation. We are now uniting a second plan with the one already in vogue, which, briefly described, is as follows: If the proprietor of one manufacturing establishment is caring for four people each week at the cost of \$4 per week for each person, or an aggregate of \$16 per week, we are asking the employees to contribute a like sum to be distributed among the families of those who are being cared for by their employer. Up to the present writing we have had no refusals from manufacturers to join this movement. And if it can be extended, which I have every reason to feel

that it can and will, throughout the whole manufacturing establishments in the United States, in a short period of time it will protect the 7,000,000 of those employed in these different establishments. This movement has become known as the Overlock Tuberculosis Agreement.

Dr. R. H. Bishop, jr., secretary of the *Anti-Tuberculosis League of Cleveland, Ohio*, reports that in addition to educational campaigns, which consisted of stereopticon lectures, moving-picture shows, and discussions before audiences, a systematic canvass of the public schools was made, where lectures were given in each school building, and that thousands of pamphlets on tuberculosis were distributed. Most of the educational work is done at Christmas time, in connection with the sale of Red Cross seals.

Within the last year the "Cleveland Health League," consisting of a dozen or more organizations that are concerned in the health of the home, has been organized; a paid secretary is employed, who, in cooperation with the executive committee, superintends the placing of the exhibit and arranges for an extensive educational campaign in various sections of the city. Each organization has a section in the exhibit, setting forth the main points in its work and its relation to the health of the home, and it is so gotten up that anyone visiting the exhibit starts in with the prenatal care of the child as given by the maternity dispensary, the work of the babies' dispensary, medical inspection of schools, etc. It is now proposed to connect all of these organizations with the health department, in which will be developed an educational bureau. Article 2 of their proposed constitution, setting forth the object of this league, is as follows:

The object of this league shall be the dissemination of information concerning public health. It shall bring to the attention of those who may need to use them the facilities offered by boards, institutions, organizations, and agencies, both public and private, dealing with public health matters. It shall promote publicity on the means of improving health conditions as recommended by these various agencies, both public and private. Its methods shall include exhibits, lectures, publication of pamphlets and newspaper articles, and such other means as are available to attract either local or general attention to the betterment of health conditions.

Cohoes, N. Y., has a committee to prevent tuberculosis. The following rules to prevent disease were printed on a card headed "Health is Wealth," which is distributed by this committee in the homes and is so arranged that it may be hung up in the house for ready reference. In addition to the rules printed in one column, the other column gives the number and location of the fire-alarm boxes in the city. This device, of course, is simply to make the card worth while to all and to cause it to be hung in a conspicuous space. It will be noticed that the rules which follow are not limited to advice regarding tuberculosis, but are general in their nature.

Good air.—Avoid badly ventilated, badly lighted, dusty, dirty, overheated, or damp rooms.

Avoid house dust.—Breathing dust, notably house dust, often causes disease. Have no tacked-down carpets and mattings. Have loose pieces or rugs, and clean them frequently outdoors. Use a hair broom for your floor, and keep lower sashes closed while sweeping or dusting. Open upper sashes, if possible. Never sweep rooms with a broom that raises dust.

Pure water.—Drink pure water. Avoid water from shallow and unprotected wells, and from ponds and streams. If in doubt, boil the water. Avoid public drinking cups.

Safe milk.—Tuberculosis, typhoid fever, and other diseases are often caused by drinking raw milk and raw cream. Get milk properly pasteurized, or home pasteurize it, or simply scald it. All cream, including that used for ice cream and butter, should be properly pasteurized to be safe.

Keep clean.—Take a bath or sponge daily, and a warm bath, followed by a cold splash, plunge, or shower once or twice a week or oftener. Use soap freely. Wash your hands before handling food. Don't put your fingers, money, paper, or pencils in your mouth. Don't bite your finger nails. Clean your teeth morning and evening.

Food.—Don't eat raw food that was exposed to flies or dust or touched by unclean hands. Fruit and vegetables so exposed should be rinsed or washed thoroughly. Chew your food well.

Sleep.—Get enough sleep. Sleep with windows open or, better still, outdoors.

Head up.—Sit and stand erect. Practice deep breathing. Breathe through your nose.

Exercise.—Take plenty of outdoor exercise, but avoid excess in athletics; it may cause heart trouble. Don't eat or drink when overheated by exercise.

Liquor and tobacco.—Avoid liquor and tobacco. They are especially injurious to the young.

Don't neglect colds.—Don't neglect coughs and colds. If you do not get well soon, go to a doctor or dispensary for treatment. Never cough, sneeze, or breathe into another's face. Don't spit on floors or sidewalks.

Sunshine.—Admit sunshine freely into your houses and into your lives. Cultivate cheerfulness and kindness; it will help you to resist disease. Your mind acts on your body.

The State Charities Aid Association of New York, a voluntary organization, has for its stated objects—

the visitation and improvement of charitable institutions maintained by the State and by counties, cities, and towns, the placing of destitute children in families, and the prevention of tuberculosis and insanity. The association has been in existence for 40 years, and is divided into local committees. The work it undertakes to do in teaching people how to prevent and cure tuberculosis is indicated by the summary of their work for the year 1911.

The committee on the prevention of tuberculosis has carried on its campaign for the education of the general public and the adoption of constructive, preventive measures in the counties, cities, towns, and villages of the State outside of Greater New York and Buffalo. In cooperation with the State department of health a large exhibit was sent to 12 cities and 6 small exhibits to 247 villages in 21 counties. A series of meetings was held in each city and village and in the larger localities local committees were organized. A number of prominent State organizations indorsed the program of "No Uncared-for Tuberculosis in 1915," and called upon their local bodies to petition county, municipal, and town officials for the providing of nurses, dispensaries, and hospitals. This and other propaganda work served to bring about, through the

cooperation of local committees, the opening of 6 dispensaries, 3 open-air schools, the engaging of 15 nurses, the maintaining of 4 summer camps, and the assurance of the construction of 9 county hospitals and 2 city hospitals for tuberculosis.

In addition to the detailed work simply suggested in this inclusive program the association sends representatives to the various conferences and associations having for their purpose the general health of the people.

The efficient secretary, Mr. Homer Folks, during the year 1911, gave a course of lectures in the New York School of Philanthropy, and made addresses at various meetings of health and medical societies, both in New York and elsewhere.

The educational activity of this association proceeds along two lines:

First, to teach people the salient facts regarding the nature, cure, and prevention of tuberculosis; and, second, to arouse sentiment for the creation of greater facilities for the treatment and care of the disease.

Their campaign of education is conducted—

throughout the State of New York, outside of Greater New York, and is greatly helped by the 403 local committees affiliated with the State association, to induce county boards of supervisors to establish county tuberculosis hospitals and city authorities to appropriate funds for dispensaries and visiting tuberculosis nurses.

A larger educational program is undertaken with reference to publicity. This is accomplished by special press bulletins, special stories in the daily newspapers and in the various press associations. In 1912, 82,193 copies of special literature and 56,116 letters were sent to members and officers of tuberculosis committees, women's clubs, granges, municipal and county officials, labor unions, county and city medical societies, and individuals. In addition to this means of publicity the association utilizes exhibits which they send through the towns and villages throughout New York State. Also, lecturers are supplied to various local organizations, acquainting the people with the latest information with reference to the prevention of tuberculosis and the care of those afflicted with this disease. To indicate how minutely this association has gone into the educational side of health work, health rhymes were printed on blotters and distributed to the school children throughout the State. While these health rhymes are not especially poetic, it is interesting to see that they especially emphasize fresh air, free play in the open, plenty of sunshine, and personal cleanliness. Only two of the rhymes suggest a doctor and possible medicine. These are:

- C—is for cough, which refuses to quit,
- D—is for doctor to look after it.

SOCIETIES FOR PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS.

The Maryland Society for the Prevention of Blindness reports that, through the efforts of the educational committee, talks on the prevention of blindness have been given to many clubs, settlements, associations, Y. W. C. A.'s, and to other workers in the city. Leaflets have been prepared and distributed, and a plan has been proposed to organize the teaching of midwives in Baltimore.

The society has given special attention to ophthalmia neonatorum. They also are attempting to safeguard the children by establishing systematic examination of children's eyes in school.

The Tennessee Federation of Women's Clubs has given especial attention to the prevention of infant blindness, and has prepared and sent out through different health departments simple directions for the care of newborn babies.

The American Association for the Conservation of Vision, Dr. F. P. Lewis, Buffalo, N. Y., president, states in a little pamphlet that there are over 100,000 blind people in the United States, and that in 30,000 of these cases the loss of sight was preventable. The purpose of this association—

is to endeavor to obtain effective action through the health boards for the control of ophthalmia neonatorum and other infectious diseases of the eye, to secure in factories and workshops adequate lighting and more general use of protective devices to prevent accidents to the eyes, to extend knowledge, through the help of illuminating engineers, architects, and others, as to the best methods of illumination in public buildings and in our homes, and to enlist the cooperation of all who, through interest in the subject or through their occupation, can aid in preventing the unnecessary loss of eyes through carelessness or ignorance.

The work is in charge of some of the ablest men in the country, specialists, practical philanthropists, and financiers, but it depends for its ultimate success on the support of the public.

The Kentucky Society for the Prevention of Blindness has issued several circulars concerning the care of the eyes of newborn babies, and also warning people against the dangers of trachoma, which is quite prevalent in some of the mountain sections of that State.

In the third report of the *Ohio Commission for the Blind*, made in 1910, to the governor, it is stated that the commission proposes:

(1) To continue through a number of years educating the public for the saving of sight.

(2) To forward and initiate movements for the profitable employment of the sightless.

(3) To provide home teachers for those who in adult years have become blind, and so to ameliorate their condition.

To carry forward such a program calls for the undivided attention and service of a competent superintendent, with sufficient funds to make his work really effective.

The social service work at the *Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary*, as outlined in their fifth annual report, may be summarized briefly as follows:

In the last five years the social service department has made over 5,000 visits to the homes of poor patients, and in addition has made a special study of contagious diseases of the eye in infants (*ophthalmia neonatorum*), visiting 496 cases after discharge from the hospital; has given great assistance in the effective campaign in the city and State toward the prevention of blindness; has studied the relation of industrial accidents to total or partial blindness in wage earners; and has established a class for the treatment of tuberculosis of the eye, making about 300 visits each year to this class of patients alone.

The committee on prevention of blindness of the *New York Association for the Blind* was organized for the purpose of preventing unnecessary injury or loss of sight from any cause and is, therefore, endeavoring to eliminate *ophthalmia neonatorum*, trachoma, and other preventable eye infections, to prevent blindness from drinking or inhaling wood alcohol, eye injuries in the industries, and impairment of vision from improper lighting, and also the use of glazed paper in school books.

The committee carries on its work through investigations, educational publicity, cooperation with all organizations which can be helpful, and through influencing certain legislation. In the fourth annual report of the committee it is stated that—

The educational work of the committee as carried on through the year has consisted of the publication and distribution of literature, public speaking, the loaning of exhibits and lantern slides, and the writing of magazine articles and press notices.

The committee has published during the year a ninth edition of its circular No. 1, "The Prevention of Blindness," containing practical suggestions for the preservation of sight; a second edition of No. 4, "Directions to Mothers, Midwives, and Nurses for the Prevention of Ophthalmia Neonatorum," in the four foreign languages, Yiddish, Polish, Italian, and German, and two editions of its third annual report for the year ending November 1, 1911.

During the year 19,573 publications have been distributed; 11,648 in New York State, 7,805 in States outside of New York, and 120 in foreign countries.

Addresses and talks on *ophthalmia neonatorum*, midwifery, lighting, and various phases of the work have been given by members of the committee and the executive secretary before the Central Nurses' Club, of New York City, before the International Conference on Hygiene and Demography, and before the Illuminating Engineering Society.

The committee's exhibits on *ophthalmia neonatorum* and other phases of preventable blindness have been shown at 16 conferences or meetings in 6 different States, while 2 new exhibits have been prepared, one being sold to the University of Texas for use by its extension department, and the other, consisting of three large screens on the subject of trachoma, being incorporated in the Italian neighborhood child welfare exhibit prepared by the New York child welfare committee. Sets of lantern slides, in addition to frequent use in New York State, have been loaned to social welfare workers in four other States.

The Massachusetts Commission for the Blind, in connection with its general educational work to enable the blind to become self-supporting citizens, is, through its field worker and in many other ways, doing effective educational work for the prevention of blindness, the education of midwives, the instruction of mothers concerning the care and treatment of their children, in urging the adoption of better laws for the prevention of blindness, and in the enforcement of the laws now on the statute books. In addition, the commission sends out an exhibit on the conservation of eyesight to various meetings, to public libraries, and to the various health agencies throughout the State.

The commission was authorized under a law passed in 1906. Its chief concern, however, has to do with the needs of the adult blind and helping to establish them in self-supporting occupations. Its health education work, while important, is more or less incidental to its main purpose.

DENTAL HYGIENE SOCIETIES.

The National Mouth Hygiene Association has planned a nationwide campaign for the purpose of (1) bringing about legislation which will permit local boards of health and boards of education to cooperate in the establishment of a complete system of medical and dental inspection and in the establishment and maintenance of medical and dental clinics to care for the indigent poor. (2) To secure legislation which will make it possible to protect the public from that class of dental practice which is a menace not only to the individual but to the health of the community. (3) To secure legislation which will not only improve the conditions surrounding the teaching profession of this country, but to enable boards of education to pay salaries commensurate with the service rendered.

One of the most interesting experiments in oral hygiene and its relation to general intellectual development of children was that undertaken by this committee in Cleveland. While their findings must of necessity be tentative, on account of the number of children experimented on, nevertheless it is a start in the right direction, and the evidence goes to show that, other things being equal, those children whose mouths are well cared for are thereby enabled through the influence of better health to do a higher grade of intellectual work than those whose mouths and teeth are ill kept and in an insanitary condition.

The direct educational work of this committee consists largely in making known to the people the serious condition of the mouths of children of all classes, cause of this widespread disease, and the

necessary treatment to overcome it. Among their latest educational means is a moving-picture show entitled "Toothache." This has been exhibited in many parts of the country and has aroused a good deal of interest.

Many pamphlets and charts are published and articles prepared for popular magazines, all designed to educate the public with reference to urgent need of better care of children's teeth. They have been instrumental in establishing many school dental clinics and are forwarding this movement in a commendable way.

The Rochester Dental Society has engaged in educational work in the public and parochial schools in that city. They have given free lectures on the subject of mouth hygiene, have made examination of school children's teeth, have held public meetings to discuss the question of mouth hygiene, have established free dental dispensaries for the care of the teeth of poor children, and the publication of a dental dispensary record in a bimonthly magazine devoted to mouth hygiene.

The East St. Louis Dental Society has for the last two years made free dental inspection of the mouths of children in the public schools. This year they have been successful in getting the school board to employ a nurse, who visits each schoolroom in the city, giving the children instructions in the care of the mouth and teeth, and impressing upon the pupils the necessity of an individual toothbrush.

The county health commissioner for Porter County, Ind., Dr. Otis B. Nesbit, reports a very interesting line of investigation and education in his county with reference to dental inspection and education in mouth hygiene in general. He has devised a health exhibit especially for educating the children and others with reference to mouth conditions and their effects on general health. This exhibit is one of the most complete and striking I have seen in connection with the local work. One interesting feature of it lies in the fact that school children entered into the development and preparation of this exhibit, and in this way it has been of wider influence than it otherwise could have been. This is a sample of what may be done in any community by those interested.

ORGANIZATIONS FOR SOCIAL PURITY AND THE TEACHING OF SEX HYGIENE.

The American Federation for Sex Hygiene was incorporated in 1912, and its stated objects are: The education of the public in the physiology and hygiene of sex, including the study and application of every means—educational, sanitary, moral, and legislative—for the prevention of vice and its diseases.

Its scheme of work as outlined by its president, the late Dr. Prince A. Morrow, of New York City, is chiefly educational, and includes the following lines of work:

1. Enlightenment of the public in the knowledge of the enormous prevalence of venereal diseases, their dangers to the public health, and especially the dangers to the family and the race from their introduction into marriage.
2. The education of parents to the great importance of instructing their children at an early age in the origin of life and the facts of sex.
3. The education of young people in the physiology and hygiene of sex, through the introduction of sex teaching in schools and colleges, as a necessary and integral part of a rational education.

The chief features of this educational policy are publicity and sex instruction. The methods which are now available, and which promise to be most effective, are lectures and conferences and the distribution of educational literature.

The federation proposes:

- (a) The organization of a corps of lecturers chosen for their special fitness for this work, who shall address public audiences of men and women and various social groups throughout the country.
- (b) The wide distribution of educational literature and the giving of lectures, in the Y. M. C. A.'s, the settlements, large industrial organizations, trade and labor unions, to the employees of railway and street car companies, factories, department stores, Army and Navy people, etc., and to secure the co-operation in this educational work of employers' associations, civic clubs, federation of women's clubs, social and reform associations, etc.
- (c) The establishment of educational centers in cities and towns which shall carry on local educational work, in cooperation with the various societies composing this federation, and the formation of similar societies in cities where they do not now exist, in order to secure the active working forces of the federation.
- (d) The preparation of a sex hygiene and eugenics exhibit which shall be exhibited in all the large cities of the country.
- (e) The selection of an advisory committee of trained experts, consisting of leading educators, sociologists, and physicians, who shall pool their wisdom in the formulation of the matter and methods of sex instruction in schools and colleges, the preparation of suitable textbooks on sex education, and to make a digest of existing sex literature with a view of recommending to the public judicious books for general reading.
- (f) The establishment of special courses in schools of pedagogy, teachers' colleges, and normal schools, for the purpose of preparing teachers to impart sex instruction wisely and effectively.
- (g) The enlightenment of advanced students in high schools and colleges, through medical lectures, of the nature and dangers of venereal diseases and their modes of contagion, direct and indirect.
- (h) To enlist the cooperation of boards of health, State and municipal, in securing the health department control of venereal diseases; to demand hospital treatment of all cases of venereal diseases which are not or can not be properly treated in private practice; and to urge upon municipal and State authorities the necessity of providing larger and more adequate facilities for the treatment of venereal diseases in order to promptly sterilize sources of contagion and thus prevent the infection of others.

(i) To study the fundamental causes of prostitution and the social and economic conditions of which it is the outgrowth, in order to apply fundamental remedies.

(j) To cooperate with existing agencies for suppressing the affluents of prostitution, such as the white-slave traffic, dance halls where liquor is sold, steamboat and beach excursions, indecent posters, demoralizing plays, obscene literature, etc., and the enforcement of the laws for the suppression of public prostitution.

(k) To secure legislative enactments for the protection of female minors, to throw sanitary safeguards around marriage, and to utilize all agencies under social control to prevent the marriage of the unfit and defectives who are fated to propagate their kind.

The Seattle Society of Social and Moral Hygiene, through its secretary, Dr. Sydney Strong, reports that it—

has been active for over a year. In the spring of 1912, it conducted a school-house campaign, holding parents' meetings in over 50 schoolhouses. The campaign was repeated in the fall of 1912. Fully 7,000 parents have been instructed by these campaigns. The society has also had conferences and institutes and brought on lecturers from abroad. It has developed a staff of competent lecturers, physicians, and laymen, whose services have been in demand by other societies and clubs. The staff of 25 lecturers has been of great educational value. The superintendent of the public schools, the secretary of the State board of health, the head of the city board of health, are on the board of directors.

The society has put out leaflets of its own and has maintained headquarters, where literature is on sale and exhibition. It has published an approved list of books, and these have all been placed in the public libraries.

Public sentiment against the sex diseases and in favor of publicity is very rapidly growing. The leading morning paper has eliminated all quack advertisements. A bill is now before the legislature asking for an appropriation for purposes of education, through the board of health, on matters of sex and venereal diseases.

The Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Social Diseases was founded in 1906, and aims:

(1) To instruct every adult in the State of Pennsylvania with regard to the prevalence and the means of prevention of the social diseases.

(2) To secure the willing treatment of these diseases by every hospital management throughout the State of Pennsylvania.

(3) To safeguard our young men and boys, as well as young women and girls, by early, sane instruction in sex hygiene, and through them to protect our women and children against innocent infection, and to insure to them physical and moral rights identical with those enjoyed by the men.

The California Social Hygiene Society was organized in 1912.

The purpose of this society is to secure and disseminate information upon the subject of sex hygiene, of venereal disease, and of vices injurious to health and morals, and to that end to give lectures, distribute literature, and employ other appropriate means.

The methods for bringing this topic to the attention of the public are lectures delivered by volunteer speakers on social hygiene. During the past four months there have been delivered in various school centers under our auspices, in schools in San Francisco and Oakland, some 14 lectures, and at the conclusion of the lecture the small publications which we issue were distributed.

The Social Hygiene Society of Portland, Oreg., was organized in 1911, and is cooperating with the State board of health and other agencies of that State to combat this prevalent evil and to carry on an educational campaign to acquaint the people with the seriousness of the situation. During the past year the following meetings have been held: Ninety-eight parents' meetings, 2 meetings for fathers and sons, 43 meetings for miscellaneous groups of men, 59 meetings for boys, 45 talks to men in business houses, 7 talks to boys in business houses, 10 public meetings in churches and other public places, 2 talks to college women and high-school girls, 1 talk to public-school principals, 2 addresses to Western Oregon Teachers' Association, and 3 addresses before Chautauqua assemblies.

In addition, this society has published and distributed many circulars bearing on sex hygiene and related topics. Some special effort has been directed against the "quack doctors" who prey on the ignorance of young men.

The West Virginia Society of Social Hygiene was organized in 1911 to induce the fathers and mothers, the church and public-school officers, "to meet this problem face to face."

The proposed methods of this society are: (1) To distribute circulars illustrative of the dangers of venereal contamination and demonstrative of the urgency of this vital question. (2) Whenever practicable public meetings will be held, addresses will be delivered by competent speakers, and chapters of the society will be organized for the purpose of obtaining local cooperation in the general effort. (3) The society will support in every possible way the work of the Social Hygiene League, of which it, together with several other similar societies in other States, is a member.

The Chicago Society of Social Hygiene, organized in 1906, has endeavored, says its secretary, William T. Belfield, to further three aims:

(1) To instruct youths as to the injury, immediate and remote, to physical, mental, and social health, resulting from venereal disease and illicit sexual indulgence.

(2) To direct the attention of parents and other guardians of children to the fact that most children will acquire knowledge of sex either on the street or at home—the parent must decide from which source the information shall come.

(3) To disseminate the knowledge that the mentally defective, unfit to propagate normal offspring—including the feeble-minded, insane, epileptic, and habitually criminal—can be sterilized without impairment of the natural sex instinct and its gratification.

To further these ends, over 700,000 leaflets have been distributed, nearly all gratuitously, in response to requests from universities, colleges, Y. M. C. A.'s, and other organizations; lecturers have been furnished to those requesting them; advice and literature have been given to some of the 14 societies of social hygiene organized in various cities since the Chicago society came into existence; and cooperation with various organizations aiming to promote public health has been carried out.

The Los Angeles Society of Social Hygiene states its purpose and methods as follows:

To help establish the single standard of morals.

To aid parents and teachers in preparing themselves for the proper instruction of the young in sex knowledge.

To enlighten the public regarding the prevalence and seriousness of venereal diseases.

By publishing and distributing literature.

By public addresses. (Speakers supplied upon request.)

By keeping our office open daily for counsel and as a reading room and center of supplies for the best literature upon the subject of social hygiene.

The secretary, Clifford Howard, says:

The work of this society is devoted almost exclusively to the giving of talks to parents and teachers upon the necessity of proper sex education for the young. We have a small library of books and pamphlets on sex hygiene and kindred subjects which is open to all interested persons. The society numbers among its speakers some of the most prominent physicians, clergymen, lawyers, and social workers of the city, all of whom give their services gratuitously.

The following statement, prepared by B. S. Steadwell, president *World's Purity Federation*, will indicate the work of this federation:

In so far as the work of the World's Purity Federation may be said to be educational, our efforts consist almost entirely of promoting the teaching of sex physiology and sex hygiene. During the past two years we have sent out more than twenty million pages of literature, touring parties of expert workers have visited every section of the United States and every Province in Canada, traveling more than 14,000 miles, holding conferences in the leading cities. In the same time more than 1,000 public addresses have been given by representatives of the federation, while a largely attended international congress is held biennially. In all of this work we constantly hold up the necessity of living chaste, pure lives if we would be physically strong and healthy.

The School of Eugenics of Boston is attempting to give instruction in sex hygiene according to the following program:

Purpose.—The work attempts to meet the needs of (a) parents who find themselves unable to properly instruct their children in the facts of sex; (b) teachers who are unable to deal intelligently with school-room problems which involve moral questions; (c) all social workers who need to understand more specifically the problems which center about sex.

Courses.—(a) Classes composed of mothers and teachers who meet for the purpose of instruction in the biology of reproduction and in matters pertaining to sex. These classes meet weekly and give an op-

portunity for questions and discussions of home and school problems relating to the sex life of children.

(b) Normal classes for the instruction of carefully selected candidates who desire to teach this subject. This work consists of lectures, laboratory work, a certain amount of collateral reading, the preparation and presentation before the class of papers, field work in the study of family traits, and practice teaching. Certificates are granted to those who pass the required tests and who otherwise show ability to instruct others in the subject of sex.

(c) By far the greatest numbers of people are reached through the extension classes of the school. These consist of series of lectures given before women's clubs and other organizations of women, girls, boys, and men.

(d) A summer course of instruction is offered to men and women who wish to qualify for teaching. This consists of 75 lectures and laboratory periods, required reading, the preparation and presentation of papers, and trips to the aquarium, the botanic and zoologic gardens, and the natural history museums for the study of biologic specimens and the material to be used for teaching.

The Maryland Society of Social Hygiene—

aims to teach people how to care for their health by teaching the nature and seriousness of the diseases with which we are especially concerned; the manner and sources of infection; the difficulty of eradication; and the consequent need for prophylaxis. In this respect we teach the fallacy of the contention for the recognition of a so-called sexual necessity, the significance of heredity and eugenics, and the value of the training of the young in a more normal and systematic way in the laws of sex. The objects are sought to be attained through the medium of lectures and literature and through conferences of groups of people interested in the hygienic and educational welfare of the community.

The society employs a secretary for full time, at present one who has had 11 years' experience in elementary and secondary school work. The secretary, in addition to the lines of work indicated, seeks to interest individuals and other organizations in the importance of studying causes of the spread of disease and the means of prevention.

The St. Louis Society of Social Hygiene has furnished, through its president, Dr. George R. Dodson, the following statements regarding its work:

We are striving through the press, through public meetings, through lectures before all kinds of clubs, societies, classes, and associations, through churches and Sunday schools, and through the dissemination of literature—(1) To induce such parents, as are qualified, to instruct their own children in sex hygiene. (2) To create public opinion which will demand the systematic teaching of this subject in the public schools. (3) To cause the public to realize the serious nature of venereal disease and the extent to which the innocent become infected. (4) To bring to the knowledge of every woman and girl a knowledge of her interests and dangers in this connection, revealing the frequency of venereal infection in marriage by husbands who suppose that they

are well but who are germ carriers. (5) To combat popular errors, such as the doctrine that sexual intercourse is necessary to the health of men. (6) To explain to the public the fact that serious troubles, such as locomotor ataxia, etc., are often the sequelae of venereal disease. (7) To create a public sentiment that will demand of applicants for the privilege of marriage that they be free from venereal disease. (8) We are now advocating a law forbidding marriage to the feeble-minded. (9) We publish bulletins containing lists of approved books on sex hygiene.

The Connecticut Society of Social Hygiene says it—

is concerned solely in the educational work pertaining to sexual health, the term social hygiene being used in that restricted sense. The organization has over 800 members, among whom are many of the most prominent people of the State. The educational work is carried on by means of volunteer lecturers and the distribution of educational literature. Under our own caption we have published four educational pamphlets: No. 1, the general statement covering the topic at large, with a special appeal to the citizens of this State; No. 2, a pamphlet for young men; No. 3, a pamphlet for young women; No. 4, a pamphlet giving instructions for those infected with venereal disease. All of these pamphlets are for free distribution.

We have recently bought a complete edition of 10,000 copies of Brieux's play, "Damaged Goods." These we are distributing for 25 cents each.

Recently we have secured the services of an able man who, as field secretary, will devote his whole time toward furthering the work of the organization.

The American Vigilance Association, whose president is Dr. David Starr Jordan, president of Stanford University, states its purpose to be—

to suppress and prevent commercialized vice, and to promote the highest standards of public and private morals. To accomplish this purpose the association shall strive for the constant, persistent, and absolute repression of prostitution and the passage and enforcement of laws for the rescue and protection of girls and women, for the promotion of knowledge of the social evil, its effects and results, and for the circulation of the best literature regarding it.

The official journal of this association is *Vigilance*, now in its twenty-sixth volume. It is a monthly magazine "correlating constructive efforts for the suppression of the social evil."

The State Board of Health of Indiana issued a health circular entitled "Social Hygiene versus The Sexual Plagues," which has been reprinted many times, and 100,000 copies have been distributed. This is an educational pamphlet designed to acquaint the public with the extent and dangers of these secret diseases, and also to suggest methods and means for combating them.

The Detroit Society for Sex Hygiene is undertaking to teach people to care for their health in the following ways:

We have been before practically all the labor unions, fraternities, clubs, factories, laundries, church societies, and parent-teacher meetings in the city. This winter (1912-13) we have presented the subject to the entire high-school student body of the city. Our literature has been recommended as suitable in libraries by one of the official organs of library work, and has been called for

by numerous libraries. The total number of circulars printed to date has been about 190,000 copies.

The Spokane Society for Social and Moral Hygiene states that the work of this society is entirely limited to the subject of education in sex hygiene. Lecturers have been furnished at public meetings where an avenue of publicity could be obtained.

Reed College, in cooperation with the Oregon Social Hygiene Society, is offering an extension course on the general theme of "Sexual hygiene and morals." Lectures are to be given in Portland, Oreg., at the Portland Hotel, every Monday evening from February 10, 1913, to April 28, 1913. The purpose of this course of lectures is—

for the benefit of various parents who feel a need for more complete information than has been given at single parents meetings, for business men and their wives, for public-school teachers, librarians, Sunday-school teachers, and other social workers.

RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS ENGAGED IN HEALTH TEACHING.

The superintendent, Charles Stelzle, of the bureau of social service of the *Presbyterian Board of Home Missions*, reports that in its several departments of work this bureau makes much of education with regard to the matter of health:

Sociological surveys are constantly being made in various cities and States throughout the country, in which the bureau deals with sanitary conditions, housing, the social evil, the causes of mortality, and conditions in shop and factory as they affect the health of the worker. Invariably after a survey a comprehensive report is made, and recommendations based on the findings are suggested to the municipal authorities through the particular organization which requested the survey, or else these recommendations are carried out by the local organization for which the survey has been primarily made.

In connection with such work, conferences with leading business and professional men and social workers are held, and sometimes mass meetings are conducted for the purpose of giving wide publicity to the conditions, but particularly to the constructive programs suggested.

At the Labor Temple, a down-town church organized by the bureau in one of the most congested districts of New York City, there are frequent series of lectures on such subjects as tuberculosis, the causes and prevention of insanity, food reform, the social evil, and the care of the human body.

The Methodist Federation for Social Service undertakes in addition to other lines of work—

to prevent all preventable diseases by spreading the knowledge of the methods of prevention and by forcing individual responsibility for the health of the community.

To combat and destroy commercialized vice, to secure proper education in sex hygiene in the home and by competent instructors in the school, and to promote the single standard of purity.

To repress the vicious features of commercialized amusement and to secure the provision and direction of adequate recreation and wholesome amusement by the community.

The Council of Jewish Women, through the chairman of its committee on education, Mrs. Bernard E. Pollak, reports its health work as follows:

The 50 sections of the Council of Jewish Women (in 24 States and Canada) deal primarily with conditions affecting Jewish life, but in all educational fields such as those promoting the public health the council necessarily merges its especial interest with that of the whole community.

The general program of work issued triennially by the national chairman of the committees of the council of Jewish women to be used by the various sections urges the following essential features along the lines of public health:

(a) Prevention of unnecessary blindness by cooperating with other agencies or for initiating means to arouse the public by an educational campaign concerning ophthalmia neonatorum, its causes, dangers, prevention, and cure; the necessity of educating and training midwives in the sanitary care of the baby's eyes, the use of the nitrate of silver solution, etc.; the hygiene and care of the eyes, dangers of the common roller towel, eye strain, etc.

(b) Prevention of tuberculosis by initiating a movement or cooperating with other agencies in a directed campaign of education for stamping out of consumption.

(c) Teaching of personal and sex hygiene through medical inspection and the school nurse's talks to the children and mothers' and parents' clubs, pointing the dangers of a lowered vitality in the child, induced by poor teeth, adenoids, eye strain, flat foot, anemia, insufficient and improper nourishment, rest, etc. It also urges cooperation with the teachers in initiating and conducting health talks with the children concerning the care of the body, the value of pure air, proper rest, the evils lurking in the roller towel, the common drinking cup, and the plague of the mosquito, fly, etc.

About 35 sections, through special committees appointed for the purpose, are now directly furthering the cause of sex hygiene instructions following suggestions of the national committee. This is done through those within their own number, who are studying these questions, and by having lectures presented on this subject by physicians and educators; by cooperating with the American Federation of Sex Hygiene, or other like agencies in a campaign of education.

We are striving to establish courses of instruction, study, and conferences for mothers, courses of instruction in sex hygiene in the normal schools, conferences between teachers, mothers, and physicians upon this subject, and a course of instruction that shall answer the needs of, and meet the problems of, the young men and women who have left school, with no preparation for the dangers about them, and are thrust upon the world to rise or fall according to chance.

The Sunday-School Superintendents' Union of Boston and vicinity, it is very interesting to note, is beginning to undertake educational work in direct connection with health conditions. Through its sex education committee, it is attempting to furnish to boys and girls of the proper age lectures and opportunity to borrow really worthy books to read, bearing on this subject. The chairman of this committee is Mr. Don S. Gates.

The union is acting on the theory—

that the ideal way that our children should be taught concerning matters of sex should be through their parents with a religious background, if possible.

We are not advocating meetings of groups of boys or girls, but rather parents' meetings where they may be able to see the importance and opportunity they have to instruct their children along these lines. To accomplish this object we are bringing the matter before the members of the union (about 375 members from nearly as many churches, within a radius of 30 miles of Boston) in three distinct ways: (1) By bulletins sent to all the members of the union; (2) by furnishing speakers once each year to address the union on this vital subject, and by furnishing speakers for parents' meetings in the different churches; (3) by the loan of recommended books.

The International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations has furnished through one of its secretaries, Dr. George J. Fisher, specialist in physical education, the following comprehensive account of the educational attempts of this powerful association:

We have our department of physical training. This is supervised by over 600 physical directors, and reaches in its membership, through its 648 gymnasiums, over 300,000 men and boys. One hundred and sixty thousand are enrolled in regular gymnasium classes. All this gymnasium work is based upon preliminary physical and medical examinations, and special exercise is given to those requiring it because of peculiar defects. Fully 67,000 such examinations were made during the past year, and over 1,000 physicians voluntarily cooperated in making these examinations and serve on the local medical staffs, thus making it possible to counsel with young men in reference to their health needs.

The association does not limit its work to physical exercise, but places great importance upon teaching men to live with reference to personal hygiene. Two hundred and thirty-three associations report giving series of health talks; 171 had first-aid classes. Lectures and study courses in eugenics and in public sanitation and kindred subjects are popular.

The Young Men's Christian Association realizes its responsibility to the young men and boys in the community, irrespective of whether they are members of the association. In fact, while 300,000 have been reached in the membership, over 400,000 outside the membership have been ministered to in matters of health. A very comprehensive organization has made this possible.

Nine thousand volunteer leaders have been trained in leaders' corps to do technical physical work. Twelve hundred of these are teaching in schools, on playgrounds, in churches, settlements, and boys' clubs, thus making play and physical exercise possible to thousands who otherwise would have no supervision.

The physicians give health talks in shops, factories, schools, churches, and in every conceivable place.

Several specialists are giving a large portion of time to the Young Men's Christian Associations and are used in community campaigns on sex education, holding conferences with parents, teachers, and leaders on the best methods for promoting sex education. Special courses of study have been developed and authoritative literature created.

A Health League has been organized, which has 4,000 members all over North America. This league has two departments—a department of health education and a department of health service. Literature is sent to the members,

special editions of certain well-known books on health being published. A monthly bulletin contains information on health topics. Pamphlets on smoking and alcohol have been written, and pamphlets issued by other organizations have been circulated. The department of service provides for the organization of local health-league chapters. To such chapters moving-picture films and stereopticon slides and lectures on health topics are furnished, and local campaigns in the interests of health are promoted. In some cities health days have been celebrated and a score of speakers organized, the schools and board of health cooperating. Health Sundays are organized in churches and material furnished to clergymen. In one city the films were placed on exhibition in a local theater, and over 2,000 children marched from the schools to see them. Clean-up days have been stimulated, and in one city a board of health was organized where none existed before.

One significant movement is the promotion of rural health and recreation. Health surveys have been outlined and directed. A specialist gives all his time visiting county associations and gives play demonstrations in the public schools, showing the teachers how they can conduct certain games and physical activities. Play festivals are organized, whole counties participating. The physical surveys have revealed many physical defects among school children. One village, where 100 school children were examined, revealed 40 per cent with adenoids and enlarged tonsils. Complete policies, based upon findings, are submitted to and adopted by local committees for rural reconstruction. These include movements for abolition of open privies, health inspection in schools, efficient public sanitation, establishment of accurate system of vital statistics, etc.

Health institutes are held, in which health conditions and remedies are discussed. In mill villages the association has taken full charge of health work, and in construction camps secretaries have been given responsibility for the health of the men employed.

One interesting form of service which the association has undertaken in the past three years is the popularization of swimming. Several experts were engaged to visit Young Men's Christian Associations, each spending a week in a city, at which time the swimming pool of the local association was thrown open to the public and boys from the schools were given lessons free. A unique method was devised by which swimming is taught quickly. The water in the pool is heated to 80°, land drills given, water wings used in the water until the stroke is learned, and in from one to three lessons boys learn to swim, unaided, from 25 to 50 feet. In these campaigns over 50,000 were taught last year. Often the campaigns were held in the public baths. The results have been far reaching, some schools making swimming compulsory and often asking the association to do the teaching. In Chicago the system was taught to all men in charge of the bathing beaches and municipal baths.

The Young Men's Christian Association is rendering effective service in helping to establish playgrounds, often supervising them until the municipality is educated to its responsibility and is ready to take them over. This is true of physical training in the public schools. Sunday School athletic leagues, factory leagues, leagues among commercial houses, are organized and directed.

A new form of athletic administration is now being promoted, the purpose of which is to unite the permanent organizations of a community, such as the school, college, church, playground, settlements and Young Men's Christian Associations in giving direction to the sport of a community and making them a part of sane health and character development.

The national board of the *Young Women's Christian Association*, through its secretary, Miss Marcia O. Dunham, New York City, states that the matter of health teaching in Young Women's Christian Associations throughout the country can be summarized as follows:

Physical education in the association comprehends training through exercise, developmental, hygienic, corrective, and æsthetic. Indoor and outdoor games and athletic sports are promoted under rapidly improving conditions. Over 40,000 girls are registered in physical training classes, but these figures do not take account of the numbers who use the gymnasium and outing parks for recreative games and sports.

Swimming, which affords the women the best means of overcoming many of the faulty habits of function due to dress, bad posture, and ignorance of hygiene, has come to have a prominent place in the Y. W. C. A. program.

Hygiene is taught by practical talks and popular forum on the purpose and value of exercise and rest, diet and dress; and also by well-worked-out courses of a popular nature on personal, industrial, and community hygiene, with practical application to the working and living conditions which belong to the persons instructed. Special courses of lectures on health were given in 84 cities in 1912.

The largest opportunity for emphasizing practical values is afforded in the summer camps and conferences where each summer for periods of from 10 days to 3 weeks, thousands of girls practice the simple rules of health under a system of self-government, which proves to them conclusively that, although individuals may not be able to choose their environment, they can change it if they care enough to try.

As a means of cultivating in women a right attitude toward health, the policy for the coming year includes a plan for setting certain standards of health and testing these standards among association members.

The ideal of honor in holding health standards is the basis of the Health and Honor League, an organization which is being promoted among the girls, and which includes a scheme of practical training in things which are fundamental in the life and experience of the woman of to-day. The goal is efficiency for the woman in the business, home, social, or moral sphere. A code is adopted for each section, and a point system enables the members to measure attainment.

HOME AND SCHOOL LEAGUES AND ASSOCIATIONS.

The Home and School League of Philadelphia is composed of some hundred and more organizations, two-thirds of which are grouped around school buildings. Many forms of activity have been entered into through the stimulating interest of the central body of the league. Those relating specifically to awakening an interest in people as regards health conditions are such as courses of lectures dealing with definite instruction concerning such subjects as fresh air, food values, physical exercise, etc. These lectures have been given in various sections of the city. During the past year some 200,000 people have been reached in this way.

Another phase of activity has been carried on under the school luncheon committee, which, while furnishing children with wholesome, nutritious food at the small cost of from a penny to 3 cents for a meal, is succeeding in stimulating the home to a sense of its responsibilities in this direction. Following the school lunches in many centers, lectures on cooking have been given to the mothers belonging to the home and school group of their community. Reports are being received continually of the direct influence all of this is having on the health of the children, both in the home and in the school.

A committee on housekeeping centers is following the children from the activities of the central body into their homes and by means of the personal touch is instructing the family in conditions that will make for health.

Under the moral and social education committee another form of health benefit is being carried on by stimulating the boys and girls to a certain development of physical prowess. The approach is made purely from the physical side, and many boys finding that development of muscle does not follow while they indulge in smoking have thrown away the cigarette, and in their effort to become stronger in body are catching a sense of the purity of spirit which is so essential. Both boys and girls are taken on "hikes" Saturday afternoons by members of the home and school league, who volunteer their services. A group of some half dozen college girls are doing this for four schools, and a marked improvement in the health of the schoolgirls has been the result. Several of our young university men have done the same for the boys' schools.

The Boston Home and School Association, through its various committees, is undertaking to improve conditions of child life in that city by fostering cooperation between the home and school and by providing an opportunity for the study of the intellectual, moral, and physical development of the children. The association publishes the *Boston Home and School News-Letter*. The last number of this periodical (Jan.-Feb., 1913) is a health number, and the following topics are discussed: The nervous breakdown; the care of the body; some observations on the health of working children; health and store work.

The Chicago School Extension Committee, in addition to its work in serving lunches, has established a lecture course in a night school for mothers and prospective mothers. A trained nurse, whose salary is paid by this committee, is employed to instruct these groups of women in the most fundamental matters concerning themselves and their babies. This committee is composed of delegates appointed from 70 or more women's clubs in and near Chicago. They were

instrumental in establishing vacation schools, playgrounds, and open-air schools as a part of the regular work of the board of education in Chicago. It is their policy to start and test out the value of such undertakings and then, if they promise useful service, to induce the school authorities to incorporate them into their regular school work.

SOCIETIES DEVOTED TO THE TEACHING OF MENTAL HYGIENE.

The National Committee for Mental Hygiene, through its director of special studies, Dr. Thomas W. Salmon, says:

The educational work in which the National Committee for Mental Hygiene is now engaged has for its object the dissemination of information regarding the prevalence and causes of mental disorders, the means of their prevention, and humane methods of treatment.

When it is realized that at the present time there are over 200,000 insane persons in institutions (a number exceeding the number of cases of tuberculosis in institutions), it is realized that prevention of these disorders is a matter of great importance. It is also true that there is no other matter relating to health regarding which so little reliable information is possessed by the public, or regarding which there is such wide acceptance of unfounded beliefs. These facts make an educational campaign seem absolutely essential in any movement for mental hygiene.

After considering the question very carefully, it was thought that an exhibit on mental hygiene would be an especially useful means of beginning such a campaign of education. The striking results accomplished by the use of the exhibit in popular education regarding tuberculosis led to a very wide use of this form of popular education in other health movements. Examples of this are the employment of exhibits on health by the Federal Public Health Service and local boards of health and of various exhibits by child-labor organizations, child-hygiene organizations, and many other bodies which are working for social betterment.

The mental-hygiene exhibit was prepared under the direction of Dr. Stewart Paton, of Princeton, N. J., and many authorities on mental diseases in this country gave their time and knowledge very freely in its preparation. It was carefully planned, for it was felt that at the beginning of such a new movement for popular education it was quite essential that no errors should be made and that the new and rather complex material to be presented should be shown in a logical manner.

Another feature of the campaign of the educational work which our organization has under way is the publication of pamphlets dealing with certain other phases of mental hygiene.

The ones thus far published are—

- (1) Origin, Objects, and Plans of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene.
- (2) Principles of Mental Hygiene Applied to the Management of Children Predisposed to Nervousness. By Dr. Lewellyn F. Barker, professor of medicine, Johns Hopkins University. (Issued March, 1912.)
- (3) Summaries of Laws Relating to the Commitment and Care of the Insane in the United States. Compiled by Mr. John Koren. (Issued September, 1912.)
- (4) Some Phases of the Mental-Hygiene Movement and the Scope of the Work of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. By Dr. Lewellyn F. Barker. (Issued November, 1912.)

The State Charities Aid Association of New York, through the assistant secretary, Mr. Everett S. Elwood, summarizes the educational undertakings of the committee on mental-hygiene movement as follows:

The mental-hygiene committee began active work for the prevention of insanity in New York State September 1, 1910. Its plan of work as then announced and as carried out during the past two years was—

1. Inaugurating a State-wide campaign of popular education as to the preventable causes of insanity.

2. Bringing to light individual cases of approaching mental disorder at an early stage and helping them to secure such medical attention and social aid as will delay or prevent complete mental breakdown.

The campaign for popular education has been continued in New York State for the past two years by the following: (a) Distribution of literature; (b) correspondence; (c) meetings; (d) exhibits.

Twenty-four different pieces of literature, besides reports, have been distributed. One of these is a small pamphlet entitled "Why should anyone go insane?" It has been printed to the number of 585,000, and to date 578,000 copies have been distributed among interested individuals. Numerous press bulletins have been issued to New York State papers and to magazines. These have carried the essential facts about mental diseases to hundreds of thousands of individuals. An article giving a complete statement of the work, the causes and extent of insanity, was printed in the May (1910) Review of Reviews, which has a circulation of 225,000.

The 13,474 physicians in New York State have received letters and literature; over 500 of them have taken active part in the general education of the public. Eleven thousand three hundred and seventy professional men, clergymen, teachers, social workers, and heads of organizations have been invited to co-operate in the educational campaign, and 680 of them have done so.

Popular knowledge has been advanced also by local campaigns in the principal cities of the State of New York, and lectures and meetings before clubs and organizations. Forty meetings, with a total attendance of 7,000, have been held, besides the recent mental hygiene conference in New York.

The first mental hygiene conference and exhibit ever held occurred at the College of the City of New York, November 8 to 15. It consisted of six evening meetings and two afternoon sessions, and daily stereopticon and moving-picture lectures. Thirty-three physicians, teachers, and sociologists, many of international reputation, addressed the conference. The total attendance at the conference and exhibit approximated 21,000. The New York press gave a total of 60 columns of news space to the conference.

During the coming year the committee plans to do the following:

(1) Continue the campaign of popular education in New York City and State by an extensive use of the exhibit, by public meetings and lectures, a wide distribution of literature, and press and magazine articles on the extent, causes, and prevention of insanity. Intensive local campaigns will be held in centers of population.

(2) Promote the establishment of additional clinics and psychopathic wards in connection with general hospitals throughout the State. Partial plans have been made for an additional mental clinic in Brooklyn, another in Manhattan, and one in the city of Syracuse.

(3) Continue the intensive social service work with individual cases. By making complete and accurate records of cases, assist in the study of the heredity of insanity.

- (4) Organize committees to carry on work in different localities.
- (5) Conduct a careful study of a limited number of abnormal school children, considering their environment, heredity, school records, physical make-up, and mental maladjustments.
- (6) Promote desirable State and Federal legislation bearing upon the cure and prevention of mental diseases.
- (7) Support practical and well-advised measures promoting eugenics.

HEALTH WORK OF TYPICAL INDUSTRIAL CONCERNS.

The health teaching of certain industrial establishments is a striking development of the past few years. The efforts in this direction grew out of the demand for more competent work on the part of employees. It has been found that it pays to conserve the health and vigor of women, and to this end wholesome environment is furnished, the best sanitary equipment is provided for workers, and in addition they are taught better care of their health.

Merely as an advertising scheme, one concern is sending lecturers to other cities and communities where they show, by means of lantern slides and exhibits, the value of good health, and how it has been made the basis of successful manufacturing. They have especially emphasized the value of pure, clean air, abundance of sunlight, pure water, wholesome food, and regular exercise. It has been found also that workers must have recreation and fun in order to reach and maintain the maximum efficiency in daily work.

Some of the life insurance societies of this country are engaged on a large scale in attempting to teach their policyholders the value of good health and the means of maintaining it. This sort of general propaganda on the part of these great insurance companies works both ways. It means money to the companies and better health and longer lives to the policyholders.

One company states that its educational work in the field of health—

is designed to stimulate both the individual and the community to adopt simple and well-known preventive measures to reduce needless sickness and premature death.

The primary object is to reach the individual policyholder, of which the society has about 500,000. This is done through an illustrated magazine, which is carefully designed to attract and hold their attention. Each issue of this publication contains information and comment upon the various phases of conservation and a health bulletin which appeals to the individual and deals solely with prevention.

Important lessons are drawn from the general mortality statistics and published in popular form.

Interest in the public health service is stimulated and action encouraged by the distribution of pamphlets, circulars, public addresses, etc.

The educational campaign includes not only the prevention of communicable diseases, but especial attention is given to the excessive life waste from the degenerative diseases of middle life and old age.

An especial effort is made also to induce policyholders and others to adopt the practice of periodical health examinations to detect incipient disease, when it may be checked or cured.

The following brief outline of the health work of another company will give a slight suggestion of its educational undertakings in the field of health:

At the home office an infirmary is maintained for the benefit of the employees, with a physician and a trained nurse attached. A visiting nurse is employed, whose duty it is to visit the homes of sick employees. To the policyholders and the public at large pamphlets on health topics are distributed. The following titles will indicate the variety of subjects treated: Health Suggestions; Care of Children during Summer; Consumption, Suggestion for its Prevention; Fresh Air, Its Importance to Health; Foreign Bodies in the Eye, Ear, Nose, and Throat; Flies, a Plague of Plagues.

In addition to these pamphlets a periodical is published, each edition numbering 2,250,000 copies, distributed gratuitously to policyholders and to the general public. Many articles appear in this periodical which were written to instruct in all phases of health conservation. This company has also taken part, through its exhibits, in the general movement for the prevention and cure of tuberculosis.

The Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Industry of Greater New York is an organization made up of seven members—two representing the manufacturers, two the unions, and three representing the public. This board is empowered to establish standards of sanitary conditions to which manufacturers and unions shall be committed and shall obligate themselves to maintain to the best of their ability. Naturally, in attempting to set these standards, it has been necessary to have a system of inspection to see that the standards set are maintained, and this has the effect of educating all parties to the agreement to strive for better standards.

With reference to the strictly educational work that this board of sanitary control is undertaking, the following excerpts from published bulletins will give some indication of what is attempted. These are published in English, Yiddish, and Italian, and distributed to the workers. Bulletin No. 2, published in 1911, gives the following sound and interesting advice:

Health is the most precious possession of man. Health is the only capital of the workingman. Without health, the workingman is of no use to his employer. Without health, life to the employee is not worth living. Therefore, the preservation of health is the most important consideration of the worker. Therefore, join in securing safe and sanitary shops, in order that your life may be prolonged and your health be preserved.

The work place plays a most important influence upon the life and health of the worker. In his work place, the worker spends over one-third of his life.

His life and health are influenced by the construction, by safety from fire, by the light and illumination, by the air and ventilation, and by the sanitary care and cleanliness of the shop.

Workingmen have a right and duty to demand from their employer safe and sanitary shops.

But the employers have a right to demand from the workingmen themselves that they should be clean and should help the employers to keep the shop clean.

Let the workers prove to their employers that they not only demand sanitary and clean shops but appreciate them and will help to keep them clean.

Demand cleanliness from your employers, from your fellow workers, but demand it first of all from yourself.

It is impossible to give a sufficiently detailed account of this work to show its true importance, but it certainly represents a new attitude when employer and employee bond themselves together in a voluntary organization of this kind to help preserve life and health.

A manufacturer of coats, suits, and skirts states that many nationalities are represented in the working force, and that at times it is very difficult to teach properly health and hygiene. During the noon hour in this establishment, motors are disconnected and no factory work is done. No one is allowed to eat in the workroom; a dining room, properly fitted, is used for luncheons. There is a library of 575 books for distribution among the employees; there is a piano, and during the noon hour musical entertainments are frequently given. A graduate nurse is in charge of an emergency room, where minor accidents are treated. The company employs welfare workers, who visit the homes of the employees and teach them how to care for their health.

ASSOCIATIONS FOR SECURING CLEAN MILK SUPPLY.

The American Association of Medical Milk Commissions has for its purpose—

to federate and bring into one compact association the medical milk commissions of the United States; to exchange views and to adopt uniform methods of procedure in the work of the medical milk commissions; to fix chemical and bacteriological standards; to determine the scope of veterinary inspections and to foster and to encourage the establishment of medical milk commissions in other cities. * * *

The greatest menace to the pure-milk movement lies in the fact that politically controlled boards of health are pretending to guard public health. Wherever this condition obtains there would naturally be friction between the milk commission, striving honestly and fearlessly to improve local conditions, and the board of health on the other hand, which may be protecting special interests and individuals. In such instances the organized medical profession represented by the commission can so definitely mold public opinion that the pure-milk movement in a city may become a campaign issue.

The work of the *Massachusetts Milk Consumers' Association* is entirely directed toward securing a clean milk supply for the whole

State, the first step required being to get proper legislation. To secure this result a campaign of education has been carried on among legislators, and much more among consumers and producers, by means of talks given at meetings of clubs, granges, church organizations, settlement houses, schools, etc., also through cartoons, and by the dissemination of literature, both through the mails and in the newspapers, and by personal visits to many farmers, convincing them of the similarity of their interests with those of the consumers.

The association had an exhibit in Washington at the International Congress on Hygiene and Demography held there last September. This exhibit is now traveling with that of the State Board of Health, the Boston Board of Health, etc., to all of the larger cities of Massachusetts.

The Babies' Milk Dispensary, of Buffalo, sets forth its purpose in the following words:

Our effort is to start with the mother before confinement and through the nurse give what assistance is possible to help her in maintaining or acquiring a good physical condition to assume the nourishment of the infant. At the end of three or four weeks the mother is asked to bring the infant to the consultation every week to have its weight recorded and receive advice in regard to nursing, bathing, and general hygiene of the child. Much of the work is carried on by class instruction. These classes seem to be more successful by making them somewhat of a social affair.

SPECIAL COMMISSIONS, BUREAUS, ETC., ENGAGED IN HEALTH TEACHING.

The Rockefeller Sanitary Commission for the Eradication of Hook-worm Disease is a most significant undertaking both with reference to the work accomplished and also with reference to the work yet to be done. This commission treated in 11 States 227,916 persons. In the three years in which this commission has been at work nearly 400,000 people have been treated. Each of the Southern States has an organization for the purpose of educating the people with reference to the cause and prevention of this disease and for treating people at dispensaries. The county dispensary commission, organized and managed by this commission, is an educational agency of great usefulness, not only with reference to hookworm disease, but to health provisions in general. While examining and treating the people it teaches them by demonstration. The exhibit shown at these dispensaries includes a series of charts, photographs, posters, specimens of grown hookworm, and other intestinal parasites, and various stages of the development of the hookworm embryo.

The commission undertakes to make effective cooperation with local physicians to secure county appropriations, and in this way to extend the work. The commission has found, however, that while the disease

can be cured in nearly all cases, unless better sanitary measures are taken, especially in country districts, the eradication of the hook-worm from the Southern States will never be accomplished. Therefore, they have found it necessary to enter upon a campaign for the construction of sanitary toilets at country homes, country schools, villages, and wherever sanitary sewerage is not provided. In this way this commission is not only teaching how to avoid hookworm infection, but also the dangers of infection from typhoid and other intestinal diseases. To indicate the great value of this movement to secure sanitary privies and to prevent soil pollution it will only be necessary to say that nearly a half million of bulletins prepared by Dr. C. W. Stiles and Dr. L. L. Lumsden have been distributed throughout the country. This bulletin is illustrated, and a new type of sanitary toilet is explained and details given for its construction.

Incidentally the work of this commission has been of tremendous service in clearing up many questions and much superstition concerning health conditions in the South. It is perhaps safe to say that no one organization or commission in this country has wielded such a wide influence and has brought relief to so many people in the last three years as has this commission, and its educational work in matters of general health will, in the end, count for even larger service. No adequate description of the work of this commission or its educational influence can here be given. Its work is so well known and has proved itself so effective that extended accounts of it are here unnecessary.

The training school for public service conducted by the *Bureau of Municipal Research* (William H. Allen, director, New York), in cooperation with the Wisconsin State Board of Public Affairs, through their field agent, Mr. F. S. Staley, made a thorough and systematic examination of conditions and needs of rural schools in Wisconsin. Twenty-seven counties, in widely separated portions of the State, were selected for general examination, and 131 schools in 13 counties were examined in detail. From that part of the report (Part III, pp. 26-38) summarizing the conditions which directly or indirectly affect health conditions the following quotations are taken:

No district had the following minimum essentials which every district ought to have—

- (1) Windows on one side or on two adjacent sides only, with the major light coming over the left shoulders of the pupils.
- (2) Windows properly curtained with both opaque and translucent shades.
- (3) Windows running practically to the ceiling.
- (4) Narrowest piers possible between windows—not over 15 inches.
- (5) White ceilings.
- (6) Walls tinted a soft light green or gray, restful to the eye and nerves and having high reflecting quality.

The biological laboratory of the *Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences* is undertaking to train teachers for work in eugenics. They offer a course—

open to a limited number of properly qualified college graduates with biological training who wish to prepare themselves for positions as field workers in connection with institutions for defectives and other work. The course lays particular emphasis on modern methods of investigating the inheritance of family traits.

The Health-Education League, under the presidency of Dr. Dudley A. Sargent, of Boston, the well-known specialist in physical education, is doing a splendid work through its famous booklets on health topics. More than a score of these have been issued, each of them written by a specialist. In order to indicate something of the nature of these booklets, the following titles are selected: *Healthful homes; The plague of mosquitoes and flies; The efficient worker; Sexual hygiene; Habits of health; Typhoid fever; Infection and prevention; The observance of health day in schools; Industrial hygiene; Hygiene for workers; Hygiene of exercise.*

These booklets are described as the "best examples of expert knowledge brought to an edge for popular use." They cost little more than a single copy of a newspaper, and more than a quarter of a million have been sold or given away.

College work in hygiene.—In order to illustrate what is being done in health teaching in connection with regular college work, the following brief summary of the work done in the College of the City of New York is offered:

The department of physical instruction and hygiene of the College of the City of New York had for the year 1911-12 a staff of 17 professors, tutors, and assistants engaged in carrying out a program including the following lines of work: (1) Individual instruction in hygiene through a medical examination, hygienic instruction, and regular conferences; (2) medical and sanitary supervision of all students with reference to board of health regulations, medical consultations, medical examination of athletes, and emergency treatment; (3) lectures on hygiene (eight terms); (4) instruction in physical exercise (drills with apparatus, swimming, outdoor games, and sports); (5) general athletic control.

A good part of this work is prescribed for all students in the college.

NEGRO ORGANIZATIONS FOR HEALTH TEACHING.

The Negro Organization Society of Virginia is devoting its chief energies to teaching the negroes of that State the facts concerning the cause and prevention of some of the most common diseases, such as tuberculosis and typhoid fever. According to a statement by

J. M. Gandy, the executive secretary of this association, its special work for the year 1913 will consist in "trying to get the colored people to ventilate their homes, churches, and schools properly, and to build sanitary privies at their homes, churches, and schools." This society has arranged itineraries through the counties for members of the State health department.

In these counties we have gone from church to church, giving lectures to the people. After the lectures we have asked the people this question, "Do you believe in what has been said?" In every case the answer has been "Yes." Then we say, "We want to see how many of you will pledge yourselves to do something definite for your health." Those who answer in the affirmative are asked to sign a card with the following pledge printed on it:

THE NEGRO ORGANIZATION SOCIETY'S HEALTH CREED AND PLEDGE.

I believe a sound healthy body is the most precious of all earthly possessions, the foundation of a strong mental life, the most important element in the making of moral character, the first essential to any worthy achievement, and the greatest factor in a life of happiness.

I believe dirt and filth are the copartners of disease and death; cleanliness, an abundance of pure fresh air, plenty of sunlight, and the proper disposal of the waste from the human body are the greatest safeguards to good health.

I believe the first duty of man is to provide such conditions at home, at school, and at church as will make possible good health.

I therefore pledge myself to build a sanitary outhouse at my own home or make the old one sanitary, so that flies and animals can not get to the filth; to provide for an adequate supply of pure fresh air, day and night, winter and summer; to keep clean my person, yard, stables, and outhouse; to whitewash or paint my dwelling house, barns, and outhouse as often as necessary; to safeguard my water supply against contamination; and to do whatever I can to encourage good health in the entire community in which I live.

Name in full-----

R. R. MOTON, President,
Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

J. M. GANDY, Ex. Sec.,
State Normal School,
Petersburg, Va.

The National League on Urban Conditions among negroes undertakes, in addition to its general social and industrial work, to emphasize the following hygienic and sanitary program for better health conditions among the negroes living in some of the larger cities of the North and South: The improvement of housing conditions; fresh-air work; provision for wholesome recreation; and convalescent care.

CHAPTER XII.

PURPOSES, METHODS, AND RESULTS OF THE PARENT-TEACHER COOPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS OF THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS.

By MARY HARMON WEEKS.

FOUNDERS OF THE CONGRESS.

The National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations was organized in 1897 by Mrs. Theodore Weld Birney, a native of Georgia, then resident in Washington, D. C. Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst gave the financial support needed for the initial work. The first convention was held in the Arlington Hotel, Washington, D. C.

BASIS OF ORGANIZATION.

At its first meeting the congress announced its belief that the wisdom of experienced and intelligent motherhood, applied to all that pertains to childhood, whether in home, school, institution, reformatory, or factory, can do more to raise the social and civic conditions of our country than any other one thing; that the children of the world need the loving protection and consideration of enlightened womanhood; and that organized motherhood stands for the same wise, loving thought and care for the children of the world that a wise, loving mother gives to her own little ones.

CONVENTIONS.

Since 1897 conventions have been held yearly in States where the work needs inspiration, and there are now branches in 33 States. In each State there are large numbers of associate members, mothers' circles, and parent-teacher associations. In 1908 interest in the work had so increased that an international congress was held. Delegates appointed by many foreign powers were present, and it was decided to hold such a meeting every third year in Washington. At

the international child-welfare convention held in 1911 there were representatives from all but four States in the Union. Great Britain sent Mrs. Barry Hart, of Edinburgh, to represent the Parents' Educational Union; Belgium appointed Consul General Hegeman; Greece sent two men; and China sent a man to say that the mothers of China were to be organized. Two men stood for Italy, one of them specially delegated to bring a message from the Queen saying that the mothers of Italy would be organized. Persia appointed Madame Ali Kuli Khan, the wife of the Persian Ambassador, to represent it. She is now congress organizer for Persia.

PURPOSES OF THE CONGRESS.

The work of the congress may be briefly summarized as a work for child welfare in home, school, church, and state. It aims to carry the mother love and mother thought into all that concerns or touches childhood; to raise the standards of home life; to develop wiser, better-trained parenthood; to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parent and teacher may cooperate intelligently in the education of the child; to promote the establishment of kindergartens and of laws which will adequately care for neglected and dependent children; to secure such legislation as will insure that children of tender years may not be tried in ordinary courts, but that each town shall establish a juvenile court and employ special officers, whose duty it shall be to so care for the child that he shall be rescued from, rather than confirmed in, evil ways; to work for such probationary care in individual homes rather than institutions; to give young people, ignorant of the proper care and training of children, opportunities to learn that which will enable them to better perform the duties of parenthood; to promote high ideals of marriage and the maintenance of its sacredness and permanence; to interest men and women to cooperate in the work for purer, truer homes, in the belief that to accomplish the best results men and women must work together; to rouse the whole country to a sense of its duty and responsibility to childhood; to surround the childhood of the whole world with that loving wise care in the impressionable years of life that will develop good citizens, and not lawbreakers and criminals.

DEPARTMENTS.

It does this work through 17 departments, many of which are merely media of cooperation with other national organizations; for instance, the departments of child labor and for the prevention of infant mortality. Others are extension departments. One organizes parents' and teachers' cooperative societies. The United States De-

partment of Agriculture and the Bureau of Education have aided this department in many ways, and some of their bulletins are distributed through the national office of the congress in Washington.

DEPARTMENT OF PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS.

The strongest, most active, most far-reaching department of the congress is that of the parent-teacher work, through which it hopes to retain in the home its full share of child nurture. Unfortunately there has been of late too strong a tendency to thrust much of this upon the overburdened schools.

The congress believes that through parent-teacher meetings the true division of labor between home and school may be determined; through discussions of the problems of parents and teachers the home may be educated to the necessity of assuming and performing its share. The public may thus be brought to understand that it also has a duty to home and child, which will best be performed not by makeshift playgrounds, makeshift meeting places, makeshift methods of preventing infant mortality, but by making every dwelling a true home.

DEPARTMENT OF GOOD ROADS FOR COUNTRY-CHILD WELFARE.

The congress recognizes an additional problem in the rural districts, and has created a department of good roads for rural-child welfare. This department organizes "road-cadet companies" among country schoolboys, and teaches them how to make and care for the roads leading to the schoolhouse. At the suggestion of the congress a primer on road building for use in rural schools has been compiled by Mr. Samuel Ravenel, of Booneville, Mo. Girls are organized into "pick-and-shovel clubs." They are instructed in sewing and cooking, in different kinds of profitable gardening, including tomato growing and mushroom culture, and in marketing the product. They also work for the improvement of their country schools. Good roads make it possible for both children and parents to come to the school. Entertainment is provided for all; the boys and girls do regular and helpful work for the community, and a spirit of cooperation between home and school is established.

DEPARTMENT OF JUVENILE COURTS.

The department of juvenile courts and probation, whose chairman is Judge Ben. B. Lindsey, has done important work in spreading information concerning juvenile courts and in securing legislation for them. The passage of the juvenile court law of Pennsylvania was due largely to the efforts of Mrs. Frederic Schoff, president of the congress. She has spoken on this subject in almost every

State in the Union; her papers on the juvenile court were asked for by officials of the Governments of Austria, England, and Australia; and she is the only woman who has ever been invited to address the Canadian Parliament, her topic being the aims, needs, and methods of the children's court.

THE DIFFERING FORCES OF HOME AND SCHOOL.

The school can do for the children many things that the home used to do, and it can certainly do them better. There are other things that must be done by the home, or they will not be done at all. Parents and teachers must have a common purpose, a spirit of intelligent cooperation, in order that home and school may each perform its best service to the child. Together must they work to give each child the sympathetic, intelligent care which will develop body, mind, and heart.

THE PURPOSE OF THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION.

The National Congress of Mothers believes that parent-teacher circles, carried on in connection with the schools, offer the best opportunity for acquaintance and true cooperation between parents and teachers. In the sympathetic atmosphere of the parent-teacher circle the parents learn, perhaps, how they are hindering the school work of their own children and of the school at large; learn that they and their children can not live for themselves alone, if they wish to live in the best way. The mother who is not yet beyond the stage of fighting for her children, whether right or wrong, learns as she listens to the discussions that her child can not have his rights unless he is willing to allow equal rights to others; that the give-and-take of the school community is the best kind of discipline. She learns that only by conformity to the school rules can her boy take his rightful place. The heedless parents learn that tardiness and absence are not small matters concerning their daughters alone, but hindrances to the school, by which their children suffer equally with the rest. Self-centered parents learn that some kinds of home helps are obstacles to school advancement.

On the other hand, the teacher, sometimes dwelling too much on system and curriculum, finds her sympathies refreshed by coming into contact with the home relations of the children. She realizes more vividly the conditions under which they must work at home, makes fairer allowances for shortcomings, and is often able to suggest changes that are helpful to her charges. Even untrained mothers can give common-sense advice, and the contact of such a mother with the trained mind of the teacher is of incalculable value to the home.

EFFECTS ON CHILDREN.

That children thrive under the new sympathetic relation of home and school induced by these meetings is shown by the fact that they often urge their mothers and fathers to attend. Doubtless we never fully realize how alien a place school is to the little ones, and how helpful it is to see mother and father there and a part of it. One mother said that before the school had parents' meetings her children never wanted her to come to the school, because she was poorly dressed, but that now, seeing her a part of the meeting and probably feeling a newly sympathetic attitude on the part of the teachers and a more intelligent understanding of school on the part of the mother, they urged her to come, clothes or no clothes, and really seemed to have more respect for her opinions.

A large and successful parents' association in Philadelphia secured \$25,000 from the city councils to enlarge and improve the school buildings. A touching testimonial as to the benefit of the meetings of that association was given by one of the mothers who attended them. She had 5 children and did her own work. She said her little 12-year-old girl was trying to get new members for the club, urging all the teachers who did not attend to promise to do so. "Why does your little girl care so much?" was asked. "What difference does it make to her?" "She sees the difference in me," the mother replied. "I am so much more patient, and I see so much more in home work than just the drudgery of it." The subjects studied opened to this mother a world of new thought, a realization of the children's point of view and a sympathy which they felt.

MATERIAL RESULTS.

The most important results of parent-teacher meetings are spiritual and can not be fully stated, but many material benefits also have accrued to the schools: Systems of ventilation, libraries, apparatus of various kinds, better school recreations, school lunchrooms, sanitary drinking fountains, abatement of insanitary conditions, clothes for indigent children, kindergartens, new school buildings, consolidation of rural schools, county graduations, social centers in schoolhouses, etc. All are important adjuncts of the school, but chiefly valuable as indicating a better atmosphere for child development.

Hon. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, late United States Commissioner of Education, said, in speaking of losses in school attendance:

All manner of moral influences and cooperation must be added to all manner of legal and administrative compulsion to bring about the desired uplift in the matter of continued attendance at school. Pass on the word to parent-teacher associations that such combinations of favorable influences have even now accomplished notable improvements which have been seen, measured, and recorded.

THE PRINCIPAL'S POINT OF VIEW.

School principals find the parent-teacher circle an excellent means of reaching all parents effectively when some general condition needs changing, when public sentiment in the district needs rousing, or when they wish to make certain courses effective which do not seem to take hold. A principal may know of environments which are dangerously affecting certain pupils and, through them, the whole school. He may wish to suggest needs of the school. He can talk with a hundred parents as well as with one.

Principals testify that pupils are more easily managed as a result of such meetings. They also find appreciation in quarters where they had not expected it, and disarm opposition which had long hindered their efforts. One principal said:

When first spoken to about parent-teacher meetings I could not imagine what the people would talk about, for if they talked as they usually do when they visit me I thought they would soon come to blows of the tongue at least. Now we understand the home in its relation to the school much better, and the parents seem to understand what we are trying to do.

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

County superintendents find the school and home organizations a valuable adjunct in unifying work and in creating sentiment for good roads between home and school, for better housing and sanitary conditions, for consolidation, and for all the crying needs of rural schools.

INITIAL WORK FOR ORGANIZATION.

Parents who wish to form school associations have usually to win over the principal. Naturally, he wishes to know what good the parent-teacher association will do his school, how much time it will take, how much work on his part and on that of his assistants will be required, and whether the movement has originated in a critical or a helpful spirit. If these things are made clear to him he will probably favor the meetings, and usually the organization had best be deferred till he wishes it. An antagonistic spirit can defeat all the purposes of the association. He may ask for specific cases of organization work, that he may write for first-hand information. A few such instances are here cited; they could be duplicated in every organized State:

In Irondale, Mo., money was raised by a box supper, followed by a school program. The money was used in painting and lighting the interior of the schoolhouse. The Milan Mothers' Circles held a reception at which a petition for the enactment of a curfew law was signed. A successful town clean-up, which is to be annual, was in-

augurated by the Stanberry Mothers' Union; an agitation for the enforcement of the curfew law was carried on; improvements in sanitary conditions and in discipline were accomplished through the school board; at the request of the mayor \$500 was raised for a sane Fourth of July. In Massachusetts the East Gloucester Parent-Teacher Association distributed 566 packages of flower and vegetable seeds and awarded 36 prizes for results, installed emergency cabinets in every school, and carried on a demonstration by a trained nurse on the treatment of wounds and first aid to the injured. In Auburn, N. Y., the Fulton School Circle furnished a rest room for the teachers. The Dover (Del.) Parent-Teacher Association has brought about the establishment of several playgrounds fitted up in school yards and other parts of the town, bubble fountains in the schools, and public fountains elsewhere. The Parent-Teacher Circle of Washoe, Idaho, organized a girls' sewing class, and the Fruitland circle bought a sewing machine and a basket-ball outfit for its school. The Rutland (Vt.) association raised \$800 for the teachers' pension fund. The circles in Austin, Tex., are working for the physical examination of pupils, simpler dressing of school children, domestic science and simple manual training in the grades, and supervision on playgrounds. The Maryville Union, of Missouri, was organized in a private house and its members feared that they could not get the co-operation of principal and teachers. In a short time a meeting was held in the high school at which 500 were present, the school made a fine display of manual work, and the three addresses were printed in full in the newspaper. The circle has installed an emergency rest room in the schoolhouse and is working for medical inspection. The Harrison School Mothers' Club, of Wheaton, Mo., has raised several thousand dollars to promote the improvement of roads to the school, has organized a fathers' association to help execute the plans, has raised funds to put a fireless cooker in the building to be used in furnishing hot penny lunches to the country children, has framed pictures, and raised money by a bazaar for a stereopticon for the consolidated school. It has voted to aid the girls' culture club in raising mushrooms for sale.

WORKING UP INTEREST.

A good plan for working up interest, after the principal desires a parent-teacher association, is to talk the plan over with a few of the more active patrons of the school, and having enlisted their interest to set them each to work on another circle of patrons whom it may be possible to arouse. In doing this each is asked if there is not some one thing about the school work which she would like

to know, something that should be discussed for her own information. By this means a list of topics vital to that school's welfare will be secured. The teachers will, of course, find many subjects whose discussion would facilitate their daily round—questions of the effects on school work of improper or ill-prepared food, bad sleeping and study conditions, wrong amusements, and physical and moral defects.

Personal visitations are among the most efficient means of keeping up interest and attendance after organization. There should always be a committee of patrons to receive and talk with the members when they come to the meetings and another to visit them when they persistently stay away.

PARENTS MUST DO THE WORK.

Parents are advised not to ask the teachers to take all the offices or to do all the work. Teachers are told:

Keep the parents interested by allowing them to do the work. You have each 60 children; they perhaps have only 3 and some are not even so far blest. Through the parents you can suggest to the meetings many things which you hesitate to present for yourselves.

The first essential of true success in parents' clubs is that they should be animated by a spirit of democracy. Since the rights and interests of all parents are equal in the school, so all should be equally welcomed into the parent-teacher club and given a share in its activities. Officers and committees should be changed from year to year, it being the recognized duty of every officer, under the advice of the principal, to see that there is a suitable successor ready to take his place.

CALLING THE MEETINGS.

Getting the parents together involves little extra labor for anyone. The invitation for each meeting, reduced to its simplest and most telling form, is made the writing lesson for the whole school, the higher forms making extra copies for the little ones who can not use the pen. These invitations are carried home as specimens of the children's improvement, and as such are always read.

INDUCEMENTS TO ATTEND.

Topics must be named attractively. Parents who most need the meetings are caught in this way, and also by personal solicitations from teachers and other parents to come and help. If a certain group of mothers that most need the meetings do not come, there may be some introductory music or recitation in which their chil-

dren take part, and these mothers must not go away without feeling that something is to be gained from the circle. Each one must be personally met and something kind said about the children. It will help teachers to believe in the worst child; he most needs it.

In some schools, parents are interested by tea and wafers, which make the meeting seem like a reception. Indifferent parents are asked to serve. Children are interested by hanging the best school picture in the room that furnishes the largest attendance of mothers from month to month. Sometimes a baby show brings out the mothers, and gives lessons in the care of children.

Do these things seem trivial or undignified? Do they seem to be unsystematic and out of harmony with the purposes of education? System is not an end but a means. We are working not for education alone, but for child welfare, which is much larger than education. The school must get into closer touch with the home. To accomplish this, parents must be brought into sympathy and cooperation with the school. Without this, "we are trimming one side of our hedge quite in ignorance of the plan of the one who is trimming the other. The care of stock would never be intrusted to two parties without a common plan." If through the parent-teacher meeting, the teacher gains a "common plan," he gains that which doubles the efficiency of his own work.

SUGGESTED RULES.

Very little red tape is needed in the way of constitution and by-laws. The following is quite full enough:

ARTICLE I. Object and membership: The object of this organization shall be to bring the school and the home closer together, and thus work for the best good of the children. Anyone interested in the welfare of children may become an active member.

ART. II. Name and meetings: This organization shall be called the _____ of the _____ School, and shall meet _____.

ART. III. This organization shall join the National Congress of Mothers. Dues of 10 cents per member shall be forwarded to the congress in May of each year.

ART. IV. Officers:

SECTION 1. The officers of this organization shall be a president, 5 vice presidents, a secretary, and a treasurer.

ART. V. Committees:

SECTION 1. There shall be standing committees on reception, mutual help, membership, and press.

SEC. 2. The president shall be ex officio a member of all standing committees.

SEC. 3. The officers and the chairmen of standing committees shall constitute the executive committee. Members of the committees of the State branch of the National Congress of Mothers may sit in conference with this committee, but without a vote.

SEC. 4. The executive committee shall transact the business of the organization arising between the meetings and shall provide programs for all meetings of the organization.

SEC. 5. Chairmen of standing committees shall be appointed by the president, and each chairman shall choose two other members to form the committee.

ART. VI. Annual meeting: The annual meeting shall be held in May, at which time reports of committees shall be made and officers shall be elected for the ensuing year.

ART. VII. Amendments: This constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the members present at any regular meeting.

How to Organize, furnished for 4 cents by the National Congress of Mothers, 806 Washington Loan & Trust Building, Washington, D. C., gives advice as to methods of procedure and topics for discussion. Too much dwelling on parliamentary form in such gatherings is paralyzing to the mothers.

FREQUENCY OF MEETINGS.

Once a month has been found to be often enough to come together, and all can be done in an hour. Friday is usually the best day, and from 3 to 4 the best time for towns, and from 2.30 to 3.30 for the country. The set talk is usually not over 15 or 20 minutes long. The rest of the time is devoted to questions and discussion, thus giving all an opportunity to take part and become more interested. Some one is appointed to be ready to start the questions and discussion informally. In this way the parents learn how to take part. Having taken the simplest action in meeting, they feel more closely identified with the work.

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION.

Abstruse subjects should not be chosen, nor should technical talks be allowed. Both are deadening in the public-school meeting. Doctors, nurses, ministers, and public officials (with the technical and time restriction) should be asked to participate. Teachers and parents do not have much time for writing papers. Collections of telling, vital articles from books, periodicals, and daily papers are appropriate. The 125 papers prepared for this purpose by the National Congress of Mothers and the less technical bulletins of the United States and of State agricultural and educational departments which bear on the home and school are also serviceable. The idea that everything must be original is discarded. It is the discussion that counts, and no time is wasted writing such articles, when they have already been prepared by experts.

Experience has shown that in most schools the first meetings are profitably spent in discussions of the simple basic problems of child nurture—food, clothing, sleep, habits, home study, diseases, care of

teeth, eyes, and ears. Talks on such subjects foster the feeling of intimate relation between home and school and serve to create a comradeship between the two that may later lead to radical reforms, whose proposal, in the beginning, might arouse antagonism. All the early reforms discussed should be of a kind generally recognized as the business of parents. Those which relate especially to teachers and school boards had best wait on these.

SUGGESTED PROGRAMS.

The general tendency in selecting programs is to choose subjects which, while valuable in themselves, are too general to meet the want of the majority. As many teachers, while feeling a need for better cooperation between home and school, have not formulated the actual deficiencies, and as a large number of parents are equally blind to the nearness of the needs, the following simple programs for 9 meetings are suggested as calculated to create an immediate interest in the work of the parent-teacher meeting.

Afternoon programs.

I.

1. What sort of food helps school work?
2. How we can keep our children well.
3. How to dress school children.
4. Symptoms, treatment, and prevention of contagious diseases.
5. What is obedience and when should training for it begin?
6. How our children are made dishonest and untruthful.
7. How parents hinder the school work of their children.
8. Our children's companions.
9. Need of instruction in sex hygiene.
10. Earning and saving as factors in the development of character.

II.

1. Feasible home conditions for preparation of school work.
2. The amount and kind of study profitably done at home.
3. The kind of home help children should have.
4. Methods of teaching self-control.
5. True obedience in its relation to good school work.
6. Effective methods of home and school discipline.
7. How untruthfulness is fostered in home and school.
8. The daily school nickel in its effect on honesty, health, and thrift.
9. The sorts of children's amusements the municipality should supervise.

III.

1. The duty of the home to school and teacher.
2. The kind of responsibility the home should demand from school and teacher.

3. The kind of home responsibility the school must demand.
4. How the home fails from the viewpoint of the teacher.
5. How the home could aid the school.
6. Food, air, and water in relation to good school work.
7. The educational and restraining value of regular home duties for children.
8. How tardiness and absence of the individual pupil interfere with the work of the school.
9. Regular habits as an aid to good school work.

Evening programs.

I. RELATION OF PARENTS, TEACHERS, PUBLIC, AND PUPILS TO GOOD RESULTS IN SCHOOL WORK.

1. (a) What results are parents and the public justified in expecting from the schools? (b) What adequate provision have they made for producing these results?
2. What relation have the teachers to the production of these results?
3. What duties have parents in aiding to produce these results?
4. What public duties have pupils in aiding these results?
5. (a) How does the general public aid and hinder the progress of the pupils? (b) What city regulations, rewards, and punishments aid or hinder the progress of the schools?
6. What can parents and teachers do to foster such civic pride in pupils as will lead to better results?
7. What sort of oversight should parents give to children's home study?
8. What sort of oversight should the public give to the school conditions under which pupils study?

II. PHYSICAL, MENTAL, AND MORAL CONDITIONS OF CHILDREN IN OUR SCHOOL.

1. Discussion of the good and bad points of the school property: (a) Location, (b) grounds, (c) buildings, (d) rooms, (e) ventilation, (f) sanitation, (g) ornamentation.
2. General discussion of what constitutes a sanitarily clean schoolhouse, and an examination of our own school cleaning.
3. Relation of the physical condition of the child to good school work.
4. Responsibility of the home for the health of the school at large: (a) Clean bodies, (b) clean clothes, (c) healthy bodies, (d) well-fed bodies, (e) well-clothed bodies.
5. (a) Proper food for school children, (b) school lunches.
6. (a) Amount and kind of home and school study, (b) kind of help to be given at home, (c) proper conditions for effective home study.
7. How parents might interfere with good results in school work.
8. How parents could aid in better results in school work.
9. (a) The relative duty of home and school in the moral training of the child, (b) the basic virtues which the child should possess on entering the school, (c) the vices which he has usually acquired before entering school.

EVENING MEETINGS FOR FATHERS.

Evening meetings are held occasionally to which *all* the fathers can come. If the school is in a rural district, a father and a mother

may talk on the connection between good roads and good school work, and the discussion can be on how to get both. If the meeting is in a town a good topic would be the relation to school work of the public amusements which the fathers, as voters, allow.

AN INSPIRATION.

The associations usually find it advantageous to work with the Congress of Mothers. Membership is an inspiration and brings much literature and many privileges. It keeps parents and teachers in touch with the thought of the best and most experienced men and women. Study courses and books for parents and for children are recommended by the organization, and there is a pleasure and inspiration in being a part of a great onward movement rapidly extending to all civilized countries. The National Congress of Mothers' Child Welfare Magazine keeps members in touch with all that is done and shows the paths to wider helpfulness. Each number also contains at least one article suitable for use in meetings. The reports of the congress contain many useful papers on the various phases of child training in home, school, and church. A number of clubs have formed several years' programs from this material.

WHAT PROMINENT EDUCATORS THINK OF THE MOVEMENT.

William M. Slaton, superintendent of schools, Atlanta, Ga.:

To accomplish the maximum good, the National Mothers' Congress is vigorously stressing the wisdom of forming parent-teacher associations in city, town, and country throughout the United States. The movement is the product of logical thought, patriotic interest, and altruistic motive. The foundation of this movement is so broad, deep, and safe as to challenge the cooperation of intelligent men and women. It is to the honor of the mothers of the United States that the vital connection between home and school has been placed in the limelight and is commanding the vigorous support of the press and of women in every progressive community. Once the mind appreciates the connection between childhood interest and civilization, parent-teacher organizations are inevitable. Every intelligent person knows that the child's vital interests are fixed for life before 10 years of age and that the work of the school only supplements the teachings of the home; hence a necessity for organizing a close connection between the home and the school.

In the last analysis public opinion controls things, and the parent-teacher organization will form public opinion. Then our curriculum can be broadened to meet the demands of common sense and progress. Teaching talent will be appreciated and decent salaries will be paid. It will be easier to get good teachers and easier to displace worthless ones. Then it will be possible to secure a thorough equipment for grammar schools and high schools, and the school can realize for society the purposes and dreams of its founders.

When parent-teacher organizations exist in every school district, and men and women regularly attend their meetings, public opinion will place in office men of broad views who will be quick to act for social welfare because anxious to execute the bidding of their constituents. We can not expect the highest

good in municipal or State government until public opinion demands it, and public opinion must be created, and the parent-teacher organization is the power to form the right kind of public opinion. If the parent-teacher organization is to be dominated by factional politics, fanatics, and faddists, the school will be better off without them, but if the purpose is to unite the best thought and character of the parent and of the teacher inconceivable and universal good must result for society. I hope that every father and mother and patron will join the parent-teacher organization for some school district in Atlanta and will take part in its meetings, guided by the motive of love for the community at large.

William H. Elson, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio:

I regard parent-teacher associations as the most hopeful and helpful of organizations cooperating with school officials for the betterment of conditions for children. Real mothers, with real interest in real children, not only know but can be relied on to do what is best for children. They are concerned for the welfare of children, all children, not merely a select few. Every mother should become a member of a mothers' circle.

David Snedden, State commissioner of education for Massachusetts:

I have followed with interest for some years the work of the Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations in the Nation and in two of the States. It seems to me that the congress is proving itself most helpful in its relations to the public schools, and I wish to heartily commend its activities to all who may be interested.

State Board of Education of California, by its secretary, Edward Hyatt, superintendent of public instruction:

The State board of education hereby expresses its commendation of your work as exemplified through the parent-teacher associations, child study circles, and other organizations constituting the State Congress of Mothers, which are now actively engaged in their work in so many of the cities of the State.

The voluntary action of parents and teachers in organizing for the purpose of bringing school and home into closer relation can not but be helpful to both, and the results of such harmonious cooperation will certainly result in good for the children of the schools and homes thus brought together. We recommend your work to schools which have not yet organized in this way and hope that it may be extended throughout the State.

M. V. O'Shea, University of Wisconsin:

Personally, I feel that the National Congress of Mothers has accomplished more than any other national or international society for the betterment of the conditions of child life. As an organization, it is entitled primarily to chief recognition in any proceedings relating to the welfare of child life. It has done more in America than has been done throughout the rest of the world thus far. It has developed independently of aid from the outside. The influence of the Mothers' Congress has been of immense importance throughout this country. The Mothers' Congress has made a good start and is the natural center around which other organizations should be formed.

A school principal in Oklahoma:

In my school of 22 rooms, whose patrons are working people, I find that at the end of two years the work of discipline has been cut in half since the parents began to come to the school and understand matters.

Superintendent of schools, Providence, R. I.:

I shall not be satisfied till we have parents' meetings in connection with every school.

Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.:

Observation of the spirit pervading the meetings of parents' clubs leads me to believe that in those clubs is the cornerstone for that structure which will make the life of the child in the home and in the school a unity, not a life divided between two neutral if not hostile camps.

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE CONGRESS.

Under the active leadership of Dr. M. V. O'Shea this department is furnishing to each number of the Child Welfare Magazine one article suitable for use in parent-teacher meetings and in mothers' circles. They are all prepared by experts and are the beginning of a larger work which the congress expects to develop for this department. In course of time there will be a corps of lecturers, with headquarters at the national office in Washington. These experts will be sent to the various congress circles to deliver courses on the care and training of children. So strongly does this plan appeal to students of child welfare that many are already offering to give a part of their time to the service.

When, through some large benefaction, the congress is able to realize this vision, its parent-teacher associations will become a great parents' university, with unlimited powers for good in the child world.

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CHILD.

What we do for adults is usually mere amelioration of the effects of wrong conditions. That which we do for the children is done for future generations. The twentieth century has heard the crying of the children and is arming itself for a new sort of battle—a battle against the ignorance, conceit, and inertia of parents in home, school, church, and state; and its victory will mean a new environment, a new development, a larger life for every child.

CHAPTER XIII.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., *August 31, 1912.*

SIR: Complying with the provisions of section 4 of the act of incorporation of the National Education Association by Congress, approved June 30, 1906, the following is submitted as an annual report:

An office is maintained in the city of Washington at 662 E Street NE., in accordance with section 8 of the act of incorporation, but the association owns no property, real or personal, in the city of Washington.

The personal property of the association is largely in the form of volumes of proceedings, pamphlets, reprints, and office furniture, worth about \$12,000, all of which is in the custody of the secretary in Ann Arbor, Mich., where the business of the association is transacted.

The association has a permanent invested fund, referred to in section 7 of the act of incorporation, which is in charge of the board of trustees. This fund at the close of the fiscal year June 30, 1912, amounted to \$190,000, \$10,000 having been added during the fiscal year.

The net revenue from this fund amounted to \$7,096.80, which was transferred to the treasury of the association for current expenses.

During the fiscal year ended July 1, 1912, the total receipts from all sources, including balance at the beginning, were \$51,636.01; the total expenses were \$36,253.28; the amount transferred to the permanent fund was \$10,000; the balance in the treasury June 30, 1912, was \$5,382.73.

The chief sources of revenue are membership fees, proceeds of sale of volumes and reports, and income from the invested fund.

The chief items of expense are the printing and distribution of the annual volumes, the maintenance of the secretary's office, and the expense of preparing for and conducting the annual convention.

The usual appropriations for educational investigations were made at the time of the convention, which was held in Chicago, Ill., July 6-12.

The total registration at the Chicago convention was 11,286, only 194 less than at San Francisco last year.

The general sessions and the sessions of the department were well attended, and the programs presented were of the usual standard of excellence.

The following general officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Edward T. Fairchild, of Topeka, Kans.; vice president, Carroll G. Pearse, of Milwaukee, Wis.; treasurer, Grace M. Shepherd, of Boise, Idaho.

The executive committee for the ensuing year will be constituted as follows: President, Edward T. Fairchild, State superintendent of public instruction, Topeka, Kans.; first vice president, Carroll G. Pearse, superintendent of schools, Milwaukee, Wis.; treasurer, Grace M. Shepherd, State superintendent of public instruction, Boise, Idaho; chairman of trustees, James M. Greenwood, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Mo.; member by election, George B. Cook, State superintendent of public instruction, Little Rock, Ark.

The board of trustees for the ensuing year will be as follows: Chairman, James M. Greenwood, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Mo.; secretary, Robert J. Aley, president of the University of Maine, Orono, Me.; J. Stanley Brown, principal of Township High School, Joliet, Ill.; James Y. Joyner, State superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, N. C.; Edward T. Fairchild, State superintendent of public instruction, Topeka, Kans.

Dr. Irwin Shepard, who has been secretary of the association for the past 19½ years, tendered his resignation to the board of trustees at the Chicago meeting. The following is an outline of his connection with the association:

Dr. Shepard was first elected secretary of the National Education Association in 1893, while president of the Winona State Normal School. He was reelected annually until 1898, when he declined another term because of the heavy burden of carrying both offices. The association accordingly at that meeting, held in Washington, D. C., amended the constitution and created the permanent office of general executive secretary, with a generous salary and provisions for election by the board of trustees for a term of four years. He was then tendered the newly created office and accepted, resigning his position as president of the Winona Normal School.

During Dr. Shepard's term of office the National Education Association has become the largest and most useful educational association in the world. Its permanent active membership includes many of

the leading teachers of every State in the Union and in 21 foreign countries.

In 1886 the association established a permanent fund from the annual savings from the revenue, to be invested as a safety fund whose interest revenue only could be used for current expenses. During the 12 years previous to 1898 this fund had increased to \$64,000, or nearly \$6,000 per year. Since 1898, during the term of Secretary Shepard as general and financial secretary, this permanent fund has been increased from the savings and the economical administration of the secretary's office from \$64,000 to \$190,000—an average annual increase of \$9,000.

The following quotation from an historical address, at the fiftieth anniversary convention, held in Chicago, by Dr. James M. Greenwood, who is chairman of the trustees of the association, and who was president of the association at the Washington convention when the constitution was amended to create the office in 1898, of which up to this time Secretary Shepard has been the only incumbent, is very appropriate.

Dr. Greenwood, in closing his address, said:

When I pass in mental review the illustrious names in scholarship, culture, and other higher qualities—those who have added grace and dignity to this great movement—I can not refrain from mentioning the name of the one who has since 1893 been the great organizing power in this corporation—I mean Dr. Irwin Shepard, one of the most remarkable men among a galaxy of notable men and women of this country. To his clear-sightedness, keen business sagacity, tact, and skill in conducting and handling the railroad and other transportation interests, mastery of details and the organization of the educators in each State into a compact body of progressive men and women, the marvelous success of the association is due. The historian of the association will do full justice to him whose brain has planned and whose hand has executed the great work committed to his care for the past 20 years.

At a meeting of the board of trustees, held August 5, the undersigned was elected secretary of the association for a period of four years.

I am, respectfully, yours,

D. W. SPRINGER, *Secretary.*

Hon. P. P. CLAXTON,

Commissioner of Education of the United States,

Washington, D. C.

CHAPTER XIV.

RECENT ASPECTS OF LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT.

By JOHN D. WOLCOTT,
Acting Librarian, Bureau of Education.

CONTENTS.—Gifts and bequests, 1912.—Library buildings.—Largest American libraries.—Instruction in use of libraries.—Rural library extension.—Library service to foreigners.—Association proceedings—Library positions.

GIFTS AND BEQUESTS TO AMERICAN LIBRARIES, 1912.

The donations of Mr. Carnegie and the Carnegie Corporation combined in 1912 were about \$90,000 less than Mr. Carnegie's donations in 1911, the total amount for the past year being \$2,236,953. Cash donations from other donors totaled over three times the amount of 1911: \$3,265,825.21 in 1912 as against \$1,038,452.69 in 1911. The total number of volumes given to libraries was nearly twice as large as in 1911, and sites for library buildings were more than twice as numerous. The most conspicuous gifts of the year were the gift of Mrs. George D. Widener, of Philadelphia, to Harvard University, of a library building to cost approximately \$1,000,000 as a memorial to her son, Harry E. Widener, who was lost in the *Titanic* disaster; \$750,000 to the city of St. Paul, from James J. Hill; \$200,000 to Trinity College, Hartford, Conn., from J. Pierpont Morgan; \$250,000 to Manchester, N. H., from Frank P. Carpenter; the Avery Building, costing \$500,000, given to Columbia University by S. J. Avery, and \$750,000 from Mr. Carnegie to San Francisco for a public library and branches. By a recent vote the people of the last-named city accepted this donation.

Following is the financial summary:

From Andrew Carnegie and the Carnegie Corporation.....	\$2,236,953.00
From other donors.....	3,265,825.21
Total.....	5,502,778.21

In addition to these money gifts the following were reported: Number of volumes as gifts, 115,954; sites for library buildings, 16; buildings presented for library purposes, 13.

LIBRARY BUILDINGS.

Conspicuous among the notable structures completed during the past year is the New York State Education Building, at Albany, housing the State Library, whose destroyed collections have been so energetically replaced that the number of volumes already approximates the original figures. Representative librarians from various parts of the country participated at the opening of the new central building of the St. Louis Public Library. A new library building at Springfield, Mass., was also opened. The Harper Memorial Library of the University of Chicago, and the new library building of the University of California were formally dedicated; Kenyon College dedicated a new alumni library; and the Avery Architectural Library was added to the group of library buildings at Columbia University. Much progress toward new buildings elsewhere was made during the year. Ground was broken for the new central library in Brooklyn, and the John Crerar Library at Chicago acquired a new site. Cleveland has obtained an issue of \$2,000,000 in municipal bonds for a central library; St. Paul is to have a large library building as the gift of J. J. Hill; and Indianapolis has received ground for a new central building from James Whitcomb Riley. Philadelphia is making plans for a central library, hitherto lacking in its system. Building plans are under consideration at Detroit also, and San Francisco is developing its central library scheme in relation to the proposed civic center. The new Widener Memorial Library is under construction at Harvard University, and Trinity College, Hartford, Conn., is assured a new library through the gift of J. P. Morgan.

LARGEST AMERICAN LIBRARIES.

The number of volumes and pamphlets contained in the Library of Congress and in the 5 largest city libraries of the United States in 1912 was as follows: Library of Congress, 2,012,393; New York Public Library, 1,181,392 in central building, 908,828 in branches; Boston Public Library, 1,006,717; Brooklyn Public Library, 735,848; Chicago Public Library, 501,399; Cleveland Public Library, 444,907. The largest university book collections were the Harvard University library, with 972,574 volumes and 592,434 pamphlets, and the libraries of Yale University, Columbia University, and the University of Chicago, containing, respectively, 900,000, 500,000, and 381,351 volumes. These figures show a marked increase over the preceding year in the contents of all the libraries mentioned.

INSTRUCTION IN USE OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

An increasing number of the leading colleges and universities in the United States are furnishing instruction of some nature in the use of

books and libraries. In October, 1912, the American Library Association sent a questionnaire on this subject to 200 colleges and universities. Replies were received from 149. There is a wide variation in the amount of instruction given and in the methods of presenting it.

Of the 149 answers, 64 reported no instruction whatever in how to use the library, reference books, indexes, catalogue, shelf arrangement, etc. For the most part these comprise the smaller institutions, but some of the State universities and larger colleges furnish no work along these lines to help their students in familiarizing themselves with the resources of the library. Of the number which report no courses in the use of the library, 6 are planning courses to be given in the near future. Others report instruction in special cases to individual students and particular applicants and occasional talks in chapel, and the like.

In those institutions where instruction is given, it is usually by the librarian or by some other member of the library staff.

No uniformity whatever exists in regard to time given to this instruction or in importance attached to it in different schools. It varies from occasional talks to freshmen to systematic teaching, for which credit is given.

There are therefore 85 institutions, or 57 per cent of the total number reporting, which give some attention to instruction in the use of the library. Of this number, 32 report that the work is elective; 34 that it is required. The remaining 19 did not indicate whether the work was elective or required.

In the 32 institutions where the work is elective, it is open in some cases to students of any year, and in others it is limited to freshmen and sophomores. In a few instances it is provided only for graduate students, student assistants, and school-teachers. In the University of Missouri it is elective in connection with courses in education, journalism, and the College of Arts. In Tulane it is an elective given as a university extension course.

The required work ranges from one hour or one lecture early in the semester to systematic courses running through the year. It is generally required in the freshman year, but in one instance in the sophomore year. Frequently it is a requirement in connection with English classes and sometimes in connection with history. In one college (Utah Agricultural College) it is required in connection with any class in the general science course, agricultural courses, or home economics.

Many institutions do not report definitely the number of hours of instruction. Several report one hour a week for 18 weeks; others two hours a week for 18 weeks; others one hour a week throughout the year. From 18 to 36 hours a year is the usual range. Of those who thus report definitely there is a total of 364 hours of required work, as against 1,525 hours of elective work, which would make it appear,

in general terms, that required work as against elective is about in the ratio of 1 to 4. Most colleges report there are no prerequisites for the library courses.

The subjects treated may, for convenience, be classified in two groups. The first includes those topics which are generally taught wherever library instruction of any nature is given, such as classification and arrangement of books, the use of the card catalogue, the periodical indexes, reference books, and Government documents. In the second group are found scattering subjects which are given in some schools and not in others, such as illustration and history of printing, history of books and libraries, bibliography, practical exercises in making bibliographies, paleography, binding, selection of books, accessioning, shelf listing, how to build up special school libraries, suggesting best books for grades, and the administration of school libraries.

Seven institutions report that the courses are intended primarily for school-teachers, two including in this class specialists in history. One university (University of Wyoming) gives its course for teachers and librarians working in the State; Simmons College plans to help secretaries at work in the libraries of their employers; the aim of another institution is to prepare persons to take charge of school libraries; of another to train people for employment in libraries; and of still another to train specialists in church history.

In the remaining 73 institutions where attention is given to this matter, the courses are designed primarily to give greater skill in use of books to the students as a whole and to teach the resources of the library. Seven universities give instruction regarding the library in their summer school course for teachers.

In 104 institutions the librarian is a member of the faculty. In 61 he holds the rank of a full college professor; in 14 the rank of an assistant professor; and in 1 the rank of instructor. In one or two cases he holds the rank of a professor, but without a vote. In the remaining 28 cases the report does not state what position on the faculty the librarian does hold. The remaining 45 of the librarians reporting are not members of the faculty. In three or four instances a professor is nominally librarian, and probably directs the policy of the library, but the actual administration is in the hands of an assistant librarian.

The investigation shows that the following-named institutions maintain required courses, with credit toward graduation, designed to train all the students in effective use of books and libraries. The number of hours per week and total length of course is stated in each case. Instruction is given by the librarian or by members of the library staff.

Kansas State Agricultural College.—Methods of study, one term (12 weeks), one credit. Required of all freshmen. Comprises one-half term each by department of philosophy and by department of library economy.

University of North Dakota.—Practical library work, one credit, one hour a week, first semester. Required of all freshmen.

Ohio State University.—Agricultural bibliography. One-half credit hour, first semester. A required course for students in the college of agriculture.

Oregon Agricultural College.—Library practice. All degree courses—freshman year, first semester, one credit, one recitation.

Pennsylvania State College.—School of the liberal arts. First semester, one hour: Bibliography 1—General reference. Second semester, one hour: Bibliography 2—Books and bookmaking. Required of all freshmen.

Utah Agricultural College.—Library work. One hour per week, one year.

University of Washington.—Freshmen in the College of Arts and Sciences are required to take one hour a week the first semester in instruction in the use of the library and the use of books; one hour a week the second semester in instruction on the choice of studies and the choice of a vocation. One credit for the year's work.

Elective courses affording a general training in the use of reference books and libraries are offered with credit by the following institutions to the classes named. Instruction is given by the librarian or by members of the library staff.

University of Alabama.—One hour, 18 weeks. All classes.

Albion College, Albion, Mich.—One hour, 17 weeks. All classes.

Alfred University, Alfred, N. Y.—One hour, one year. All classes.

University of Arizona.—Two hours, one year. First semester, for general skill; second semester, for teachers. Freshmen and sophomores.

Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.—Two hours, 18 weeks. All classes.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.—Introductory course: First term, credit two hours. Laboratory work: Second term, credit one hour. General bibliography: Second term, credit two hours. All classes.

Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.—Bibliography—Lectures and library work. Two hours, one semester. Seniors.

University of Idaho.—One credit, first semester. All students.

University of Illinois.—Two hours, one semester. Freshmen and sophomores.

Indiana University.—Two hours, 12 weeks. All classes.

University of Iowa.—One hour, one year. All classes.

University of Maine.—One hour, spring semester. All classes.

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.—One hour, 18 weeks. All classes.

University of Michigan.—Historical bibliography, one hour, one semester. Practical bibliography, one hour, one semester. All classes.

Mills College, California.—Two hours, 32 weeks. All classes.

University of New Mexico.—Three hours, 18 weeks. All classes.

Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.—Three two-hour courses, 18 weeks. All classes.

West Virginia University.—Two hours, one year. All students.

RURAL LIBRARY EXTENSION.

Progress continues to be made in reaching with supplies of suitable reading matter the large portion of our population, chiefly in rural and remote districts, still unprovided with library facilities. As examples of the need of this service, it may be noted that the number of people without access to books is estimated at a million and a half in New York State, and at about one million each in Wisconsin and Minnesota, although each of these three States has active agencies of library extension which have long been in operation.

The extension of the library to rural communities is but one phase of the general movement for the improvement of country life. It is now recognized that an essential condition of effective work in library extension is a broader understanding of rural life and its problems. Much work in this direction has proved futile because of its lack of cooperation with other agencies, such as the country church and the rural school, at work for country life uplift. The library can not work alone and work successfully.

Another requisite for effective library extension work in rural communities is a knowledge of home conditions, so that books supplied may be fitted to the individual or to the family receiving them. In order to meet this need, the methods of the rural social survey may perhaps successfully be employed to ascertain the reading interests and present book facilities of the people to be reached.

An interesting example of this form of procedure is a statistical investigation recently made by the Delaware State Library Commission of books and periodicals owned in the homes of rural Delaware. Blanks containing the following questions for pupils to answer were sent to the teachers in the district schools:

1. Name the books you have read in the past three years—
 - (a) Books from traveling libraries.
 - (b) All other books.
2. What books does your family own?
3. What magazines and papers does your family take?

An accompanying card from the State board of education directed that the questions be answered. As a result, the State library commission now has records covering 80 per cent of the families that live outside of cities and towns. With these reports at hand for consultation, the commission may send books with a knowledge of the community to which they are going. When a request comes for a traveling library, the record for that particular neighborhood is consulted, and a little examination shows what kinds of books are owned there.

The replies received from one county were fully tabulated, while the reports from the other two counties are partly completed. Comparatively few families failed to answer the questions, and the replies show earnestness and accuracy.

The papers proved that a great majority of the families in the country own but few books, and those not standard works in the estimation of librarians. Many families own no books aside from the Bible, and 20 per cent of them take no periodical, not even a local newspaper. The conclusions derived from the inquiry are summarized as follows:

1. There is a great lack of reading among both adults and children.
2. When books are provided, the children, at least, read them.
3. The effect of the traveling library is very marked.
4. Periodicals taken are mostly of poor quality, including very few standard literary magazines.
5. Many homes had poor and expensive subscription books.
6. If a family owned many books, the majority were usually of good quality.
7. Not over one-third of the books owned outside the families composed clearly of book lovers could be classified as good.

Thirty-five States are now engaged in rural extension work, either by means of a State-wide service of traveling libraries, or by authorizing library extension based on the county or township as local units. An account follows of present conditions with reference to these three main forms of progress.

COUNTY EXTENSION.

Library extension based on the county as a unit made considerable advance during the past year in various States, especially in California, where the county system prevails on a larger scale than elsewhere.

California was found much too large to be served adequately or economically through a State system of traveling libraries, while municipal libraries can not reach the large percentage of population living in remote parts of a county. The county free library, in its method of operation, closely follows that of a large city with its branches in different sections of the town. Its headquarters are

established at the county seat, in charge of a county librarian trained and experienced in library work, who visits all parts of the county, becomes acquainted with the people, ascertains the book needs of the general public, the schools, the clubs, etc., and makes collections of books to be placed at each branch with special reference to the needs and desires of that particular locality. At suitable intervals these collections are changed in part or entirely, so that the material on hand may always be of interest. In addition, if a book is desired which is not in the local collection, it is sent from the central county free library; or if not found there, it is supplied from the State library, all shipments being free to the borrower.

In very small communities the books are usually placed in a store, post office, or similar place convenient to the public. In each community large enough to need it a reading room is maintained, in charge of a custodian who is paid a small stipend by the county and keeps the room open at convenient hours. Supplied with newspapers, magazines, and books, the reading rooms offer a most acceptable social center, and are welcomed as a strong influence for good in the small communities.

In towns with libraries any cooperation with the county free library is for service only, and in no way interferes with the administration of the town library. If the town joins, it is then included in the taxable area, and its people consequently receive a more extended library service, since the resources of the county then supplement those of the town library.

From the county free library, and through it from the State library, the schools receive practically all books for reference and research work that the teachers may desire for the pupils.

The California State library loans, free of transportation, to the county free libraries, books too expensive for purchase by the county, books which are only occasionally required, books out of print or rare, or several books on one subject where more are wanted by a school, a club, etc., than the county needs to own. Thousands of volumes on various professions, such as law, medicine, electricity, farming, etc.; historical works, including material about California; documents, books in foreign languages, books for the blind, art books and stereoscopic views, are examples of material available from the State library.

Already 21 counties in California out of the total of 58 are maintaining county free library work, and many more are preparing to adopt it. With a central office and storehouse established at the county seat, and with branches throughout the county, the people even in the remotest districts are receiving a library service possible only under such a cooperative plan. The counties now carrying on the plan are Alameda, Fresno, Imperial, Kern, Kings, Los Angeles,

Madera, Merced, Modoc, Monterey, Riverside, Sacramento, San Benito, San Diego, San Joaquin, San Mateo, Santa Barbara, Santa Clara, Stanislaus, Tulare, and Yolo.

Indiana generally prefers the township plan of extension, but the county system prevails in some parts of the State. The public library at Bedford receives a small income from Lawrence County, and is free to all citizens of that county, while Marion and Vanderburgh Counties have county libraries at Indianapolis and Evansville, respectively. The People's Free Library, at Columbia City, lends books free of charge to all the citizens of Whitley County. The honor is claimed for Indiana of having been the first State in the Union to make provision for county libraries.

In Kentucky extension work is done in Fayette and Mason Counties by the city libraries at Lexington and Maysville, which are also county libraries. Lawrenceburg, Henderson, and Covington libraries are agitating the subject of securing public appropriations which will enable them to extend their loans to the people of Anderson, Henderson, and Kenton Counties, respectively.

A law of Minnesota passed in 1905 authorizes library extension through either the township or the county. Ten libraries in that State are now under the county extension plan, and three of these adopted the system during 1912. Only one public library in the State is under the township system. The Minnesota Public Library Commission reports that although good results have been obtained through the operation of the present law—

comparison with work in other States seems to indicate that a more permanent system could be established if the law provided for a definite basis of taxation for the county library, and accordingly a bill authorizing such taxation will be introduced in the 1913 session of the legislature.

At the 1911 session of the Nebraska Legislature, the library law of that State was amended so as to make possible the establishment of township and county libraries. Under this new provision, Lancaster County voted at the general election in 1912 to make a library levy on the county, outside Lincoln, Havelock, and College View, which already maintain libraries. The county commissioners are to fix the rate of levy and determine the mode of operating the county library. It is expected that a contract will be made with the Lincoln city library for the extension of its privileges to the county.

The New York Legislature in 1911 authorized the establishment, by popular vote, of a county library system, or securing library privileges for the people of a whole county by means of a contract between the county board of supervisors and any public library in the county. This plan has already been tried by Broome County.

In North Carolina the Good-will Free Library, at Ledger, and the Washington Public Library are aided by appropriations from Mitchell and Beaufort Counties, respectively, while the Carnegie Library, at Charlotte, receives aid from both town and county.

The laws of Ohio permit the organization of both county and township libraries. The State possesses two notable examples of libraries serving their counties in the Brumback Library, at Van Wert, and the Cincinnati Public Library.

The Library Association of Portland, Oreg., serves the whole population of Multnomah County, in which that city is located. A new central library building is about to be erected, and numerous branches and deposit stations are located in various parts of the city and county. In addition, both city and county schools have been provided with classroom libraries. Oregon has a general law under which other counties may establish libraries when occasion arises. This has already been done by Hood River and Wasco Counties.

The Tennessee Free Library Commission advocates the establishment for every county in Tennessee of a free library on the model of that of Washington County, Md., at Hagerstown. It is reported that Williamson County, Tenn., is already preparing to inaugurate a free county library at Franklin.

In Wisconsin the State form of extension predominates, but there are 12 county systems of traveling libraries organized under a special act of the legislature, besides 2 county systems supported by private benefaction. The Wisconsin Free Library Commission will aid in establishing county systems only in counties where the library conditions at the county seat or elsewhere give assurance of permanent supervision by one experienced in library routine and management.

TOWNSHIP EXTENSION.

Local library extension in Indiana is based on two laws, one known as the general library law and the other as the township extension law. These two statutes provide for the establishment and maintenance of public libraries in cities and towns, and for the extension of the unit of library control and support to one township in which such town or city is situated, or to a number of neighboring townships. The object in view is to have a public library in every important city and town, which will serve not only the people who live inside the corporate limits, but all the people in the vicinity—in other words, to make every important town and city a library center for all the people who use the town or city as a business, social, religious, or educational center. Sometimes this means one main library in a county, sometimes it means several such libraries. The rural service is both directly from the central library, and indirectly through branches, deposit stations, and when possible through parcel post.

Fifty-three Indiana towns and cities have united with 60 townships to support libraries under the township extension law. One library is securing support from 4 townships, 1 from 3, 2 from 2, and 49 are receiving support from 1 township each. Some of these libra-

ries have been operating under this plan since the first township law went into effect some years ago; several were added when the law of 1909 was passed, and 28 have become township extension libraries since the enactment of the 1911 revision.

The Iowa Library Commission reports that the township library extension law of that State is greatly in need of amendment to meet the actual conditions which have developed as the law has been tested. The results of a trial of the method in three towns have been in general encouraging.

Nearly every township in Michigan now possesses a library, through the efforts of the State board of library commissioners and cooperating agencies working under appropriate legislation.

In 1912 New Jersey had about five libraries doing effective township work, and according to the public library commission, there were in the State many others which could with advantage to themselves follow this example, and undoubtedly would if the proper impetus were supplied. The States which permit both the county and township plans of extension, namely, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Ohio, have already been mentioned in this chapter.

TRAVELING LIBRARIES.

Traveling library systems are now maintained by 28 States, as follows: Alabama, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin. In Massachusetts the State Library Commission cooperates with traveling libraries maintained by the Woman's Education Association of Boston and by other agencies. The traveling libraries formerly sent out by the California State Library were discontinued in 1911, and extension work in that State is now carried on under the county system. The principal features of recent traveling library work in 20 of the above-named States may be described as follows:

COLORADO.

The biennial period 1911-12 promised to be the most successful in the history of the Colorado Traveling Library Commission, owing to the increased grant made by the eighteenth general assembly, but unfortunately the available State funds were sufficient to meet only 50 per cent of the appropriation. In spite of this deficit, the traveling libraries increased from 241 boxes to 265 boxes of 50 volumes each, and 47 towns were added to the list of stations, making a total of 349. There is a strong demand from all parts of the State for further extension of the work.

IDAHO.

The demand for children's literature during the past year has been so great that 10 special juvenile cases have been added to the traveling library, and as many more are to be secured as soon as time and finances will permit. Special cases of books on agriculture and home economics are now in circulation for the first time. Since there are many calls for material on subjects for debates, it is intended to add special collections along these lines, as well as books for the blind.

INDIANA.

The public library commission of this State circulates 35,000 volumes annually from its traveling library department, which contains 10,000 volumes.

IOWA.

The Iowa Library Commission maintains both fixed-group and open-shelf collections for traveling libraries. During recent years there has been a steadily increasing number of requests for material on specific subjects, and of appeals for direction and help along definite lines of investigation.

Many agencies in the State stimulate an interest in books, and it is the policy of the traveling library to cooperate in every possible way with such agencies in providing books on various subjects. The agricultural extension department of the State college at Ames continued to make extended use of the books on agriculture and related subjects, and books from the traveling library were carried on exhibit cars and used at the short courses and in connection with the organization of farmers' clubs. The granges also make use of both agricultural books and those for general reading. Exhibits were also made at county fairs, with the object of arousing an interest on the part of the farmers in the use of books from the local library.

The Iowa Federation of Women's Clubs continues to be one of the strongest allies of the work of the library commission, and there is very close cooperation between the many clubs in the federation and the traveling library, both in the preparation of club programs and in supplying books for study. There has also been close cooperation with the Iowa Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Association in the preparation of a study outline on child study and in the use made of the traveling library books.

Various church organizations throughout the State, especially missionary societies, obtained material on the special country studied from the traveling library, and books for general reading were loaned to rural churches and Sunday schools to a greater extent than ever before, owing to the active interest in establishing social centers in country neighborhoods. The rural schools are making increasing

use of the traveling library and serve as distributing centers for the loan of books in their vicinity.

There continues to be a wide use of the debate collections for high schools and of the traveling picture collections.

The books in the entire traveling library collection July 1, 1912, numbered 22,823, divided as follows: 225 libraries for general reading in fixed collections of 50 books each, 12,250 volumes; open-shelf subject collection for study and graded books for rural schools, 10,573 volumes. During the biennial period preceding that date, 58,196 volumes were loaned in answer to 2,744 requests, and 278 new stations were registered, of which 134 were schools, both rural and in small towns, and 80 were clubs.

KANSAS.

The plan followed by the Kansas Traveling Libraries Commission in making up its libraries is to select the books from a miscellaneous collection, so as to fill as nearly as possible the lists submitted by its patrons. When no list is furnished, an attempt is made to send a selection of books suitable for the readers ordering. This is in many cases very difficult to accomplish without any knowledge of the tastes of those ordering or of the books to which they already have access. This "open-shelf" system involves considerably more labor than the "unit" or "fixed-group" plan in use in many States. Under the unit system a more generally desirable selection of books may be placed in each library, but it is shown by experience that books selected for general use will not be read as much as the books selected by the readers themselves.

The commission now has 5 German libraries sent out under the same regulations as the other books. A few special libraries of 4 to 13 volumes each have been purchased for a correspondence course in university extension work carried on by the State university. Of these, 6 are on English history, 3 on education, 6 on psychology, 4 on sociology, 3 on American history, 3 on American literature, and 2 on the history of ancient philosophy. Two complete libraries on domestic science have been added for the use of classes organized by the domestic-science department of the agricultural college. Aside from these mentioned, the unit system is not in use in the Kansas traveling libraries.

The following statistics show the growth of the traveling libraries during the last two years: Total number of cases on hand June 30, 1912, 525; number of accessioned volumes, June 30, 1912, 41,000. Number of libraries sent out during the two years ending June 30, 1912, 1,106, as against 1,000 sent out during the two years ending June 30, 1910.

Two years ago the traveling libraries reached 104 counties and 580 stations, while the record now shows that 640 stations in the same counties (all in the State but one) have been visited. Many of the towns are regular patrons, ordering from 8 to 10 libraries a year.

KENTUCKY.

The library commission of this State has at present 122 traveling libraries, divided as follows: General libraries, 66; school libraries, 50; farmers' libraries, 4; colored school library, 1; special library, 1. At the time of the latest report these libraries were distributed as follows: Schools, 65; communities, 22; social settlements, 2; institutions, 4; Young Men's Christian Association, 4.

MAINE.

The State now has 268 traveling libraries, of which 210 are at present in circulation. During the past year more than 400 libraries have been sent out, and the demand for them is steadily increasing. The Maine Library Commission circulates regular libraries of 50 volumes, of which 35 are fiction and 15 general literature; also special libraries made up of books on some designated country or subject, an agricultural library, and juvenile libraries.

MASSACHUSETTS.

The traveling libraries in Massachusetts have been for many years furnished and circulated by the Woman's Education Association, in close cooperation with the State library commission.

They are sent to the smaller libraries to supplement their own collections, and especially to supply the needs of study clubs and others wishing to pursue a special course of reading. They are also often sent, at the request of the commission, to outlying villages or schools as the first step toward the establishment of a branch or deposit station in connection with the town library.

Ninety localities received the benefit of these libraries in 1911. In recognition of the present need of books for foreigners, two Polish libraries were prepared, and the Circolo Italiano gave the association \$50 for an Italian library. Twenty-three sets of pictures visited 152 places.

In 1912 an agricultural traveling library was sent to six libraries; a French traveling library to two libraries; and French and Italian books given to two libraries.

MINNESOTA.

During 1911-12 the number of traveling library stations in Minnesota increased steadily. More agricultural libraries were made available, and a teacher's library was prepared, containing books on story

telling and approved editions of the children's classics. It was found impossible to supply the demand for foreign literature, in spite of liberal purchase of Norwegian, Swedish, and German books. The foreign libraries circulated by the library commission each contain 25 volumes in Finnish, French, German, Norwegian, or the Swedish language. The number of foreign books on hand in July, 1912, was 1,148.

In conjunction with the country-life committee of the Minnesota Federation of Women's Clubs, libraries on household economics, country-life problems, etc., were placed in various parts of the State. Two traveling libraries on arts and crafts and school arts were sent out to accompany the traveling exhibit of the Minnesota State Art Society. While the art exhibit was in each town, the books were placed in the public library, and those interested were thus enabled to inform themselves by collateral reading. By request of the American Medical Association, libraries on hygiene and sanitation have been collected and will be placed in rest rooms designated by the committee for public health education among women.

The total number of books in the traveling libraries July, 1912, was 26,448. There was also an open-shelf collection comprising 3,917 volumes, used in making up club libraries, furnishing debate material, satisfying individual calls, etc.

NEBRASKA.

The Nebraska Public Library Commission reports that the use of its traveling library department during 1911-12 has continued to increase. In response to 1,306 requests, 30,225 volumes were sent out, which is an increase of more than 32 per cent over the number of volumes sent out in the previous biennium. The increase might have been much greater, however, had there been more books available, and the commission therefore asks from the legislature an appropriation for enlarging the collection. During the winter of 1911-12 there was seldom a time when the number of requests on file did not exceed the number of libraries in. Books were sent during the biennium to all but seven counties in the State.

In Nebraska the practice of combining the fixed-group and open-shelf systems is found successful. The unit is 15 adult fiction and 20 children's books, to which are added books to suit the special community. The patrons express far more satisfaction with the books, and the old stations are held better than formerly. Moreover, the actual use of nonfiction has increased.

NEW JERSEY.

During the past year 795 traveling libraries have been sent out, containing an aggregate of 39,750 books. The number of traveling

library centers has been increased from 256 to 282, making a gain of 26 in the number of communities served. As far as can be ascertained, the average circulation from these stations is about four times for each volume, making a total circulation of 159,000 from the 282 stations. As computed from the reports, the average number of readers at a traveling library station is 87, making a total of 24,534 people being served through the regular traveling libraries.

As special loans, 1,871 books were sent out during 1912. With the aid of the public libraries of Newark, New York, Trenton, and other cities, this method of supplying books for specific demand is successfully meeting a need of material for individual study which could not be met through the general traveling libraries. The privilege is greatly appreciated, and this branch of the work promises in time to become one of the most important developments of the traveling library system, furnishing, as it does, a means of carrying on serious research and study work in rural communities and small towns and villages that are without libraries, as well as enabling small libraries to give their patrons the benefit of many valuable reference books otherwise unavailable.

NEW YORK.

The division of educational extension of the New York State Education Department had in 1912 a collection of 49,897 volumes available for traveling libraries, requiring the constant service of 12 persons for its administration. There were in fixed groups 5,706 volumes, of which 77 sets of 25 volumes each were for children. The great bulk of the collection consists of books which are subject to selection for reading on some particular topic. During 1911-12, 758 traveling libraries, containing 31,302 volumes, were loaned.

The division also promotes the establishment of study clubs by aiding in the preparation of their programs and by loaning books relating to the subjects of their study on the same terms as traveling libraries containing an equal number of volumes. During the year 35 new clubs were registered, and the total of those reporting approved courses of study was 353.

NORTH DAKOTA.

The following statistics show the condition of the traveling library department of the North Dakota State Public Library Commission July 1, 1912: Number of traveling libraries, 151, as against 117 in 1910; books in traveling libraries, 7,165, as against 6,158 in 1910; traveling library stations, 356, as against 138 in 1910; farmers' libraries, 95, as against 25 in 1910; books in farmers' libraries, 1,270, as against 365 in 1910.

OREGON.

There are 15,303 volumes in the traveling libraries and general loan collection of the Oregon Library Commission, 10,753 of these being in fixed groups, the balance representing books which help to meet special demands from the commission's readers in its regular stations, which in 1912 numbered 208, an increase of 105 over the total of 1910. Since there are but 209 traveling libraries for 208 stations, there are not enough books to make exchanges for these stations without waiting for the return of boxes, and an enlarged appropriation for the purchase of books for these collections is therefore requested from the legislature. During the past two years 3,178 books have been bought for these fixed traveling libraries, and 442 freight shipments have been made, containing 22,785 volumes.

Aside from these miniature public libraries, which the commission has in every county except Multnomah, there are 28 special collections of club or high-school libraries intended for the study of some one particular subject for six months or more. Nine attractive study libraries were recently added and served groups of students in small Oregon towns during the winter. These new libraries deal with description and history of China, Holland, and Mexico; travel in the United States; American colonial and revolutionary history; American literature; home, school, and community life; and the drama. The commission has other group libraries on the most interesting leaders and events in ancient, mediæval, and English history, besides four collections upon the American Revolutionary period, deposited by the Oregon Society of the Sons of the American Revolution.

PENNSYLVANIA.

During 1912 the assistant secretary of the Pennsylvania Free Library Commission spent considerable time attending farmers' institutes to present the traveling library work to those in attendance.

Traveling libraries were sent to 390 places, and 23 local free libraries also received supplementary loans, in some cases consisting of one or two volumes and in others of entire traveling libraries. The general and study club collections distributed contained 14,342 and 2,101 volumes, respectively, while 1,094 volumes were loaned to public libraries and 35 to individuals. All recipients of general collections and individual borrowers and many of the study clubs and public libraries assisted were located in communities of less than 1,000 population, and mostly in the open country.

TENNESSEE.

The traveling libraries circulated by the Tennessee Free Library Commission are collections of 50 books of general reading, which are loaned to any community in the State not accessible to a library

center. They consist of books of interest in popular science, history, travel, biography, agriculture, and household economics, as well as a liberal supply of fiction and books for children.

In 1912 the commission reported a steady and increased demand for traveling libraries throughout the entire State. Seventy-six cases of good books were sent to 112 different rural communities in 51 counties. In the words of the commission—

they have been sent to the most obscure landings up and down the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers; they have penetrated the mountain fastnesses; they have gone into the most isolated regions of the lowlands and into the most prosperous sections of our blue-grass country. Post offices, general stores, newspaper offices, schools, churches, and sometimes the hospitable farm home, have all served as stations. The circulation of books from these libraries has been large, as shown by the reports of the local libraries.

The Tennessee State Library is authorized by the general education bill of 1909 to circulate traveling libraries for county schools. In 1912 the State library had 6 traveling school libraries of 50 volumes each in each of 38 counties, a total of 228 collections aggregating 11,400 books. The purpose of the traveling school library is to supplement the permanent library and to arouse a desire for reading that will lead to the establishment of permanent libraries in communities now lacking them. The books are made available to the adult members of the family, who are reached through the children.

VERMONT.

The traveling libraries of the Vermont Library Commission number 143, containing 5,431 volumes, and are of the usual three kinds—general collections, school libraries, and libraries for study clubs. The school libraries are planned for the special use of children, and are intended to serve district schools at a distance from public libraries. The demand for the school collections required an increase in their number to 50 in 1912, which was exactly double those available in 1910.

A new departure in 1912 was 4 libraries for farmers. These contain 45 books each—20 on various phases of agriculture, 10 stories for adults, and 15 books of fiction and nonfiction for children. A constant call for these farmers' libraries and for extra agricultural books was reported.

The number of traveling libraries sent out during 1911-12 aggregated 238, containing 8,895 volumes, and comprising 110 general collections, 81 school libraries, and 47 study-club collections. The readers reached by this material numbered 4,150.

The traveling library department of the Vermont commission also circulates picture collections on about 30 different subjects, the most popular of which are colored prints of birds, animals, and flowers, which go to many schools to help in nature study.

VIRGINIA.

During the year ending October 31, 1911, the total circulation of books in the traveling library system maintained by the Virginia State Library was 31,259, and the total number of borrowers 6,579, a decided increase both in number of borrowers and readers over the figures of the preceding year. Of this service the greater part was with school libraries, for which the demand exceeded the supply.

The traveling libraries have demonstrated their popularity and have stimulated interest in the establishment of permanent libraries in many localities. The total number of volumes owned by the traveling library department October 31, 1911, was 10,666.

WASHINGTON.

The superintendent of the State traveling library reports that 288 new applications were received in 20 months and that more than 12,000 people in the rural districts are tributary to the new stations. Among the readers of the traveling libraries are 4,422 men in railroad construction and United States reclamation work. Special book purchases have been made for improvement clubs, granges, debates, required reading in the eighth grade and in teachers' reading circles, rock-quarry convicts, the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, the Young Men's Christian Association, and the women's clubs. The total number of volumes available for Washington State traveling libraries is 11,000.

WISCONSIN.

According to 1912 statistics, the traveling library department of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission possessed a total of 38,843 volumes, all in fixed groups, except 2,500 which formed an open-shelf collection. The number of volumes sent out as loans was 48,369, in answer to 1,001 requests.

LIBRARY SERVICE TO FOREIGNERS.

The public library is one of the effective agencies engaged in preparing for American citizenship the great numbers of adult immigrants settled in various sections of the country, chiefly in the large cities. This department of library work has developed during the past decade from small beginnings to a point where now the library of nearly every city in the country having a noticeable proportion of foreign-born residents has at least a few volumes and a newspaper or two in the native tongue of these patrons, while some public libraries maintain large foreign collections under special custodians. Special attention is given to supplying the need of the immigrant for literature in his own language regarding America. Many libraries

provide rooms for the meetings of societies of foreigners, and maintain lectures and evening classes for instruction in American conditions.

Some of the State library commissions circulate traveling libraries of books in foreign languages, designed especially for the benefit of the immigrant population.

In Massachusetts, in 1912, it was reported that a French traveling library was in circulation, and that Polish and Italian libraries were in preparation. New York State had available for traveling service a limited number of books in Italian, Polish, and German. The New Jersey Public Library Commission cooperated with the immigration commission of that State in work for the education and recreation of the foreigner. This library commission supplemented the collections, usually very small, in local libraries by its own books, and by acting as an exchange center for various libraries.

In the Middle West the Wisconsin Free Library Commission loans to public libraries for six months traveling libraries of German, Yiddish, Danish, Norwegian, and Polish books. Small groups of Bohemian, Danish, French, German, Norwegian, Polish, and Swedish books are sent with traveling libraries in English to settlements of foreigners. The foreign libraries of the Minnesota Public Library Commission, each containing 25 volumes in the Finnish, French, German, Norwegian, or Swedish language, had a wide circulation during 1911-12. Many public libraries with insufficient book funds depended on the library commission to help them meet the demand for foreign literature. Groups of six foreign books were sent upon request without extra charge with a traveling library in English. During the winter months the demand for Scandinavian books exceeded the supply, in spite of liberal purchases.

The Kansas Traveling Libraries Commission has five German libraries sent out under the same regulations as its other books. Since, with the opening of the Panama Canal, California expects a great increase in immigration, the problem of assimilation of the foreigner is receiving consideration from librarians in that State. It is said that the county librarians now have an opportunity for constructive work among foreigners in California not to be found elsewhere in rural districts, since the agricultural population of the State includes many diverse nationalities.

Since the bulk of foreign population is massed in the larger cities, the task of making provision for the immigrant falls principally upon the various city libraries. The policy ordinarily followed is to supply the adult foreigners with literature in their own languages, but to offer to children and young people interesting books as a reward for learning to read English.

According to the Director of the Census, in New England, once regarded as an essentially American section of the country, less than

two-fifths of the population is now native-born of native parentage. Southern New England is said to be "the most foreign region of the United States," having a larger percentage of foreign birth and foreign parentage than New York, Chicago, or San Francisco. The New England libraries are actively contributing their part to the work of assimilating this element in the body politic. Note-worthy examples of this service are furnished by the public libraries of Boston and Providence.

In various parts of the city of Boston a series of foreign centers is rapidly forming—of Italians, Jews, Poles, Portuguese, and other foreigners—many of whom are eager readers. These people want the companionship of books as a cure for homesickness, and want the information to be gained from books as an aid to advancement in their occupations. Books that will assist foreigners in learning English have recently been purchased by the Boston Public Library, and an increased supply of books in foreign languages for adult foreigners is contemplated.

The Providence Public Library has a well-organized and active foreign department. This department has 10,000 volumes in 14 different languages, with each literature arranged in a separate section, containing classic works for those who seek their mother tongue for pleasure and inspiration, while for those who are trying to learn English there are interlingual grammars prepared especially for the adult immigrant, with trade vocabularies of practical business English. There are, also, elementary reading books, for the most part in English, and books on civics to acquaint the future citizen with the fundamental principles of our Government. Leaflets in five different languages, explaining what steps are necessary to obtain cards and draw books, are circulated by the Providence Public Library, and the response is gratifying.

This public library also cooperates with the city night schools, sending them lists of books that will assist both teachers and pupils. A large part, however, of the non-English-speaking population of Providence is untouched by the public school, and must be reached by some other means. Providence has recently become a port of entry for immigrants, and coincident with this has arisen the immigrant educational bureau, which is arranging for illustrated lectures, in foreign languages and in English, on topics which will appeal to the immigrants and assist them to become useful citizens. The lecture room at the library is one of the halls used for these addresses.

In 1912 books in the Portuguese, Yiddish, and Armenian languages were placed on open shelves in the main reading room of the New Bedford (Mass.) Public Library for the advantage of foreign readers, while a large collection of French books was sent to the north branch for service among the French Canadians in that section of the city.

A suggestive card, printed in English and in French, calling attention to the resources of the library, was widely circulated through the agency of the schools and a reading list of the Portuguese books in the library was printed.

The circulation department of the New York Public Library contained in languages other than English 92,241 volumes in 1912, an increase of 10,981 over 1911. During the past year special additions were made to the collections in Spanish, Italian, Bohemian, Hungarian, and Polish. There were circulated 499,350 volumes in 26 foreign languages, an increase of 45,632 over the number recorded in 1911. The languages principally represented were Bohemian, Danish, French, German, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Norwegian, Polish, Roumanian, Russian, Spanish, Swedish, and Yiddish. Small numbers of books were circulated also in Arabic, Chinese, Dutch, Flemish, Finnish, Slovak, modern Greek, and Servian. With the exception of French and German, which are distributed throughout the branches generally, the principal foreign collections are localized among their respective constituencies.

A further extension of the work with the foreign population of New York City is planned for the coming year. It is proposed to strengthen the public library collections of Russian, Yiddish, and Polish books, and plans are under way for the installation of a collection of Ruthenian books at the Ottendorfer branch.

In order to reach the foreign population, circulars printed in Italian, modern Greek, Hungarian, Polish, Spanish, and Chinese, respectively, were distributed last year, calling attention to branches where books in these languages were available for home use. This proved effective in promoting increase of membership at many branches.

In this connection one aspect should be mentioned of the cooperative work at New York library branches with local educational, literary, and welfare societies, through the use of assembly and club rooms in branch buildings by these organizations for regular places of meeting. The advantages of such cooperation are especially emphasized in the work of the branches located on the east side, where the foreign element is strongest, and where, consequently, there is greater need of stimulating popular interest in the library by bringing these people into closer personal touch with branches in their districts.

The cooperative work of the past year included classes in the study of English for Italians, Russians, Roumanians, Bohemians, Hungarians, Lithuanians, Finns, Poles, and Oriental Jews, and meetings of foreign societies, literary and other, including most of these nationalities.

Of special interest were the meetings held during the summer in the roof reading rooms of the Hamilton Fish Park and Rivington Street branches, located in congested east-side districts, of the

"Little mothers" league, formed under the auspices of the department of health for the purpose of instructing girls in the care of babies. In reporting an attendance of over 500 girls at these meetings one librarian added that about 50 books on the subject of babies were in constant circulation among the "little mothers," a concrete illustration of one result of this sort of library work.

The Brooklyn Public Library has available for circulation more than 25,000 volumes in 20 different modern languages.

Buffalo, the second city in size in New York State, also contains large colonies of foreigners. There the circulation of books in German is, for the most part, from the main building of the public library. All the books in the Polish language owned by the library are located in one branch. The collection of Italian books has received some recent additions, but is still considered inadequate, and the same statement applies to the books in Hebrew and Yiddish. The library also contains books in the Hungarian language.

All foreign books added to the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh are placed in the central building and loaned to branches, sometimes in large collections for an indefinite period; sometimes in small groups of from 10 to 30 volumes, to be exchanged in a few months; and sometimes in response to a request for two or three books for an individual. During the past year a Lithuanian collection was acquired, selected by a small committee of Lithuanians, who gave valuable assistance in making the books known among their countrymen. Additions were made to several of the foreign collections, and entertainments in the vernacular were given to inform the foreign-speaking people that the library has books for them and that they are welcome within its doors. The increase in registration and circulation following each entertainment of this kind has shown them to be a valuable aid in the work. At the close of the year ending January 31, 1912, the books in foreign languages numbered 28,640 and the total foreign circulation during the year was 46,920, a gain of 25 per cent over 1910. The principal languages of the collection were French, German, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Lithuanian, Polish, Russian, Spanish, Swedish, and Yiddish.

Classes in English for foreigners are conducted at some of the branches of the Pittsburgh library.

At the Carnegie Library of Homestead, Pa., the annual circulation of books in Slovak, Magyar, Bohemian, German, Italian, French, and Lithuanian amounted to over 5,000. The foreign patrons of the library, who are mostly steel-mill workers, take great interest in literary club work. Examples of societies meeting in the building are the Slovak-American Literary Club with 90 members, the Magyar Self-Culture Club with 100 members, and the Slovak Civic Association with 70 members.

This library has an educational department, with classes in common and higher school branches, mechanical drawing, and commercial subjects. In the English class 43 foreigners were enrolled, while in the civil-government class for foreigners, with a 20 weeks' course, the enrollment was 10, with an attendance of 123.

For a number of years the public library of Cleveland, Ohio, has been dealing with the increasing problems arising in connection with the foreign population of that city. The circulating collections now include nearly 40,000 volumes in foreign tongues, 18 languages being represented. It is hoped to attain the solution of some of the problems by centralizing the books in each language in the district containing the largest number of readers of that language, either in the main library, a branch, or a subbranch. The headquarters for books in each language will have assistants with special knowledge of that language, and will manage interloans, book selection, and all general procedure except that of obtaining and "preparing" the books. In accordance with this plan the collections of books in the following languages have been transferred to suitable branches: Bohemian, Croatian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Russian, Slovenian, and Yiddish. The following collections remain at the main library: Danish, Finnish, French, Lithuanian, Roumanian, Spanish, Swedish, though it seems probable that the Lithuanian, and possibly the Finnish and Swedish, may be transferred to branches later. The main library will retain the central collection of German books, though in this language most of the larger branches will continue to keep local collections.

The Grand Rapids (Mich.) Public Library contains about 6,000 volumes in foreign languages, from which approximately 18,000 loans were made during 1911-12. The languages chiefly represented are Dutch, French, German, Italian, Lithuanian, Norwegian, Polish, and Swedish. There has been a growing use of Polish books, the circulation in this language being twice that of the German and Dutch languages combined.

During the past year members of the library staff gave addresses on the use of the library to groups of school children and to adult patrons. A night-school class of foreigners just beginning the study of the English language was brought to the main building for an evening to receive this instruction. For some of them an interpreter was required.

Books in foreign languages in the Chicago Public Library are chiefly in German, French, Italian, Spanish, Dutch, Bohemian, Polish, Russian, Scandinavian, Hungarian, Lithuanian, Yiddish, Japanese, and Chinese. Manuals for learning English and for the study of American institutions are also available. For the use of citizens of foreign birth, the library provides a selection of leading

daily and weekly newspapers from 15 of the principal European countries."

The Davenport (Iowa) Public Library contains books in German, French, Swedish, Bohemian, and Danish. It has received requests for books in modern Greek, Spanish, and Russian, but there is no continued demand for them.

ASSOCIATION PROCEEDINGS.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

The thirty-fourth annual meeting of the American Library Association was held at Ottawa, Canada, June 26 to July 2, 1912. The total attendance was 704. Among the principal topics discussed were: "Publicity for the library for the sake of information and support;" "The breadth and limitations of book buying;" "The efficiency of the library staff and scientific management;" "What the library schools can do for the library profession;" and the various phases of book advertising.

Among the prominent speakers were Sir Wilfrid Laurier; President George E. Vincent, of the University of Minnesota; Dr. J. W. Robertson, chairman of the Canadian Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education; Dr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress; and other prominent librarians. The conference was presided over by Mrs. H. L. Elmendorf, vice librarian of the Buffalo Public Library, the first woman president of the association. The various sections and affiliated organizations held meetings at the same time and place.

The sections of the American Library Association are: College and reference, trustees, catalogue, children's librarians, professional training, and agricultural libraries. The affiliated organizations are the National Association of State Libraries, League of Library Commissions, American Association of Law Libraries, and Special Libraries Association.

Henry E. Legler, librarian of the Chicago Public Library, was elected president of the American Library Association for 1912-13. The secretary is George B. Utley, with headquarters at 78 East Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.

Important features of the work of the association during the past year included the following:

1. Efforts to induce newspaper publishers to print a special edition on more durable paper, and efforts to induce libraries to subscribe for these better editions wherever available. This work has resulted in several newspapers agreeing to print such a special edition.

2. A study of the relations which should exist between the public library and the municipal authorities. The importance of this subject results largely from the uncertain position of the library in cities

which have recently adopted new charters, especially those governed under the commission plan.

3. An effort to inform the men students of colleges and universities of the attractions of library work, with a view to inducing more of the best qualified men to enter the library profession.

AMERICAN LIBRARY INSTITUTE.

The formation of the American Library Institute grew out of a discussion of several years' duration regarding the need of a deliberative body, made up of those of wide experience and mature judgment, interested in the development of the library as an educational force. It was felt by many that the general plan and purpose of the American Library Association would not permit opportunity for exhaustive discussion or due consideration of many questions involved in library extension, and that there was need and a place for a body where informal and somewhat confidential discussions might lead to the formation of definite, helpful, and valuable principles.

With this end in view, the matter was thoroughly discussed from every standpoint, and the adoption of a constitution followed which consummates the organization of the body proposed. The constitution of the American Library Institute states that—

the object shall be to provide for the study and discussion of library problems by a representative body chosen from English-speaking Americans, regardless of residence or official position.

The membership is limited to 100 fellows. There are at present 56 members in good standing. The growth in membership is intentionally slow.

Meetings of the institute have been held every year since 1908. Interesting and instructive discussions have been held at all the meetings, which have been open to visitors. Meetings of the past year were held, the first at Ottawa, June 26, and the second at Niagara Falls, N. Y., September 26, 1912. The subject for discussion was "The cost of administration." So much interest developed, and so wide a divergence of opinion appeared, that a special committee was appointed to investigate the subject thoroughly and report at another meeting.

The present officers of the institute are: President, Dr. Frank P. Hill, librarian of the Public Library of Brooklyn, N. Y.; secretary and treasurer, Mary Eileen Ahern, editor of "Public Libraries," Chicago, Ill.

LEAGUE OF LIBRARY COMMISSIONS.

The League of Library Commissions, including 27 State commissions and similar bodies, met with the American Library Association at Ottawa in July, 1912.

A report was submitted by the committee on charter provisions for public libraries in home-rule or commission-governed cities. The committee was continued and instructed to cooperate with the com-

mittee of the American Library Association council on library laws and charter provisions.

A report was received from the committee on library post, which urged action by each State library commission and library association to secure parcels post for books.

Reports were also received from the committees on State school library systems, on study outlines, on libraries in Federal prisons, on publications, and on uniform financial reports. A paper was read on library work among the insane.

Efforts are making to secure the formation of State library commissions in Arkansas and in Oklahoma.

OTHER IMPORTANT MEETINGS.

The annual midwinter meetings of the official boards and council of the American Library Association, the League of Library Commissions, the college librarians of the Middle West, and the faculties of library schools, were held at Chicago, January 2-6, 1912.

The New York State Library Association meeting, commonly termed "New York library week," was held at Niagara Falls, September 23-28, 1912. There was an attendance of over 300. Library work among various penal and philanthropic institutions was given prominence. Addresses were made by Dr. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education; M. S. Dudgeon, secretary of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission; Charles E. McLenegan, librarian of the Milwaukee Public Library; Walter R. Nursey, inspector of public libraries of the Province of Ontario; Prof. George M. Forbes, of Rochester University, and others prominent in the work.

The library associations of Illinois and Missouri held a joint conference at St. Louis, October 24-26, 1912. Library legislation, work among children, and work of the municipal reference libraries were among the subjects considered. Among the speakers were Prof. John Livingston Lowes, of Washington University; Percival Chubb, of St. Louis; and Henry E. Legler, of Chicago, president of the American Library Association.

In addition to the above meetings, conferences have been held by over 30 of the various State library associations. Among those of particular importance may be mentioned those in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, California, and of the Pacific-Northwest Library Association, at Tacoma.

LIBRARY POSITIONS.

The following appointments to important library positions were made during 1911-12:

Armstrong, Ione, librarian of Council Bluffs (Iowa) Public Library.

Bacon, Corinne, director of the Drexel Institute Library School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Dillard, Florence, librarian of the Lexington (Ky.) Public Library, succeeding the late Mary K. Bullitt.

Donnelly, June R., resigned as director of Drexel Institute Library School, to become instructor in library economy at Washington Irving High School, New York City.

Fison, Herbert W., librarian of the Malden (Mass.) Public Library, succeeding Lizzie A. Williams, resigned.

Fuller, George W., librarian of the Spokane (Wash.) Public Library.

Goodrich, Nathaniel L., librarian of Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.

Goodwin, John E., librarian of the University of Texas, succeeding N. L. Goodrich.

Hall, Drew B., librarian of the public library, Somerville, Mass., succeeding the late Sam Walter Foss.

Harrison, Joseph L., librarian of the Forbes Library, Northampton, Mass., succeeding W. P. Cutter, resigned.

Hicks, Frederick C., assistant librarian of Columbia University, New York City.

Hill, Galen W., librarian of the Millicent Library, Fairhaven, Mass., succeeding Drew B. Hall.

Hopkins, Julia A., instructor in charge of the normal course at the Pratt Institute Library School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Hughes, Howard L., librarian of the Trenton (N. J.) Public Library, succeeding Adam Strohm, resigned.

Josselyn, Lloyd W., librarian of the Jacksonville (Fla.) Public Library.

Kennedy, Helen T., instructor of the library training class of the Los Angeles (Cal.) Public Library.

Kercheval, Margaret McE., librarian of the Nashville (Tenn.) Carnegie Library, succeeding Mary Hannah Johnson, resigned.

McCollough, Ethel, librarian of the Evansville (Ind.) Carnegie Libraries.

Perry, Everett R., librarian of the Los Angeles Public Library, succeeding Purd B. Wright, resigned.

Robinson, Julia A., supervising librarian of the State institutions of Iowa, under State board of control, Des Moines, Iowa.

Sanborn, Henry N., librarian of the University Club, Chicago, Ill.

Settle, George T., librarian of the Louisville Free Public Library, succeeding William E. Yust, resigned.

Smith, Arthur B., librarian of the Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kans.

Strohm, Adam, acting librarian of Detroit Public Library, succeeding Henry M. Utley, retired from active management.

Sumner, Clarence W., librarian of the University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, N. Dak.

Watson, William R., resigned as librarian of the San Francisco Public Library to become chief of the division of library extension, New York State education department, succeeding William R. Eastman, resigned.

Weil, Marion F., librarian of the El Paso (Tex.) Carnegie Library.

Wheeler, Joseph L., associate librarian of the Los Angeles Public Library.

Williams, Sherman, chief of the division of school libraries of the New York State education department, Albany, N. Y.

Wilson, Albert S., librarian of the Washington State College, Pullman.

Wilson, Martha, supervisor of school libraries, under the department of public instruction of the State of Minnesota.

Wootten, Katharine H., librarian of the Atlanta (Ga.) Carnegie Library, succeeding Julia T. Rankin, resigned.

Yust, William F., librarian of the newly organized Rochester (N. Y.) Public Library.

Zachert, Adeline B., head of children's department of the Rochester (N. Y.) Public Library.

CHAPTER XV.

OUTLYING POSSESSIONS AND DEPENDENT PEOPLES.

CONTENTS.

Alaska—Indian education—The Philippines—Hawaii—Porto Rico—Canal Zone—Samoa—Guam.

REPORT ON EDUCATION IN ALASKA.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION, ALASKA DIVISION,

Washington, February 1, 1913.

SIR: I have the honor to submit the annual report of the Alaska division of the Bureau of Education for the year ended June 30, 1912.

During this period the field force of the Alaska school service consisted of 4 district superintendents of schools, 1 assistant superintendent, 108 teachers, 8 physicians (1 of whom also filled another position), 8 nurses, 2 contract physicians, and 3 hospital attendants. Eighty public schools were maintained, with an enrollment of 4,018 pupils, and an average attendance of 1,805.

METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION.

The regulations governing the Alaska school service permit the greatest freedom of action on the part of the local employees that is consistent with the ultimate responsibility of the Commissioner of Education. Each of the four school districts is under the immediate charge of a district superintendent who has almost absolute control of the work of the Bureau of Education in his district, and he in turn delegates to the teachers the greatest possible freedom of action in the local affairs of the schools. At the beginning of each fiscal year the Commissioner of Education distributes to the purchasing agent in Seattle and to the district superintendents, from the appropriation made by Congress for education in Alaska, definite sums for the purchase of supplies, furniture, equipment, and fuel, for the payment of rental, for furnishing medical relief to the natives, for the relief of destitute natives, and for the payment of traveling expenses. In like manner, from the authorizations received by them from the Commissioner of Education, the district superintendents distribute to the teachers, physicians, and nurses in their districts "subauthorizations" to enable them to make expenditures for local needs. Except in grave emergency, no expenditure is permissible unless it is covered by an authorization or by a subauthorization. By this method of

distributing funds each superintendent and teacher is enabled to meet, within the limit of expenditure authorized, every need of the service as it arises.

MEDICAL WORK.

Without neglecting the work in the schoolrooms and the sanitary work in the villages, special attention has been given during the year to medical work among the natives. Realizing the absolute necessity for checking disease among the natives of Alaska, \$25,144.50 of the appropriation for education in Alaska was used (1) in maintaining hospitals in rented buildings at Juneau and Nushagak; (2) in payments under contracts with the Holy Cross Hospital at Nome and the Fairhaven Hospital at Candle for the treatment of diseased natives, upon the application of a superintendent, physician, or teacher in the Alaska school service; (3) in the employment of 7 physicians in hospital work and in checking disease among the natives in their respective districts; (4) in the employment of 8 nurses in the hospitals and in hygienic and sanitary work in the native schools and villages; and (5) in furnishing medical chests to the teachers to enable them to treat minor ailments.

During the autumn of 1911 quarantine maintained at the mouth of the Porcupine River by Mr. George E. Boulter, superintendent of schools in the upper Yukon district, and by Dr. Grafton Burke, medical missionary of the Protestant Episcopal Church at Fort Yukon, who was temporarily employed by the Bureau of Education, was an important factor in preventing smallpox from entering the Yukon Valley by way of the Porcupine.

COOPERATION BY PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE.

During the summer of 1911 Passed Asst. Surg. Milton H. Foster, of the Public Health Service, made a preliminary investigation of health conditions among the natives of southern Alaska with a view to inaugurating adequate measures for their relief. One of Dr. Foster's recommendations was the extension of the medical work in connection with the Alaska school service. In pursuance of this recommendation and in order that the entire medical work among the natives of Alaska might have expert supervision, upon the request of the Secretary of the Interior, the Surgeon General of the Public Health Service, in March, 1912, detailed Passed Asst. Surg. Emil Krulish for service in Alaska for an indefinite period under the direction of the Commissioner of Education. With the consent of the Secretary of the Treasury, the duties of Dr. Krulish for the Bureau of Education will be (*a*) to supervise all measures for the medical and surgical relief of the natives of Alaska, (*b*) to act as instructor to the teachers of the United States public schools in

Alaska in all matters pertaining to the sanitary education of the natives, (c) to give instructions to teachers in first aid to the injured or sick, and (d) to act in a general advisory capacity to the superintendent of education of natives of Alaska in all matters pertaining to sanitation, hygiene, maintenance of hospitals, and other matters of like character. The plans for the work of Dr. Krulish in Alaska include prescribing and enforcing regulations for checking disease in the native villages.

THE HYDABURG VILLAGE.

For several years there existed a desire among the members of the Hydah Tribe living in the villages of Klinquan and Howkan, in southeastern Alaska, to migrate to a site advantageously situated with regard to fishing and hunting grounds and running water, where they could found an exclusively native village and build up industries owned and operated by the natives themselves. During September, 1911, these natives moved to the selected site, on the west shore of Prince of Wales Island, where they founded a village, which they named Hydaburg. A United States public school was at once established for their benefit. By Executive Order a tract of approximately 12 square miles was reserved for the use of this colony and such of the natives of Alaska as may settle within the limits of the reservation. Under the supervision of the teacher of the United States public school, the Hydaburg Trading Co. was organized to transact the mercantile business of the settlement and the Hydaburg Lumber Co. was organized to operate a sawmill. The natives were aided by the Bureau of Education in equipping the mill. A careful examination of the affairs of the two companies in December, 1912, by the supply agent of the Alaska division, detailed from Seattle for the purpose, showed that these native enterprises had been eminently successful. It was found possible for the directors of the Hydaburg Trading Co. to declare a cash dividend of 50 per cent and still have funds available toward the erection and equipment of a larger store building. The sawmill had provided the lumber used in building the homes for the natives, and had also furnished acceptable lumber to a number of the neighboring canneries.

THE ERUPTION OF KATMAI VOLCANO.

On June 6, 1912, Mount Katmai, a supposedly extinct volcano in southwestern Alaska, burst into eruption. For two days and nights a rain of ashes fell; the darkness was illumined by occasional flashes of lightning; the air was charged with suffocating gases; frequent earthquake shocks were felt. An extensive region was buried deep in volcanic matter. The eruption caused no loss of life, but destroyed the houses of the natives living on the coast adjacent to

the volcano and rendered necessary the distribution of food to the people in the stricken district, for the gardens were deeply covered and the salmon streams were choked with ashes. All employees of the Government in the region affected by the eruption cooperated with the Revenue-Cutter Service in rendering relief. Capt. K. W. Perry, commanding the revenue cutter *Manning*, conveyed 98 natives, whose homes had been destroyed, to a site on the Alaska peninsula which had been selected for their new home. Here the two teachers from the United States public schools at Seldovia and Tatitlek supervised the erection of the new village, to which the name of Perry was given. The materials for the construction of 21 houses, to shelter these destitute natives, and the most necessary articles for their use were sent to them from Seattle.

JUNEAU CONFERENCE.

A conference of the teachers of the schools in southeastern Alaska and native delegates representing 9 of the largest villages was held in Juneau from October 28 to November 2, under the direction of the district superintendent. The morning sessions were for teachers only, and consideration was given to the various phases of the teachers' work. The afternoon sessions were devoted to discussions of the social and economic problems confronting the natives. The native delegates expressed themselves clearly and forcibly in regard to those problems. Resolutions urging extension of the medical work among the natives, assistance to the natives in the establishment of industrial enterprises, and legislation granting citizenship to duly qualified natives were adopted by the conference.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

I can not urge too strongly the importance of the appropriation by Congress of funds to enable the Bureau of Education to make adequate provision for the medical and sanitary relief of the natives of Alaska. The use for this purpose of part of the appropriation for the education of the natives is an emergency measure dictated by the absolute necessity for action. The entire appropriation is urgently needed for the support of the schools and to promote the industrial development of the native population. Under a decision of the comptroller this appropriation can not be used in erecting hospitals.

I repeat my recommendation for the passage of a compulsory school attendance law, which is especially needed in native villages adjacent to the large towns. It is greatly to be desired that the compulsory school attendance bill which was passed by the Senate at the last session, but not acted upon by the House, should become a law.

I again invite attention to the fact that the Bureau of Education should own and maintain a seagoing vessel in which to transport

teachers, building materials, and school supplies from Seattle to the schools on the shores of Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean. Such a vessel would in a few years save freight charges equivalent to its original cost; it would enable the district superintendents and physicians to inspect thoroughly the remote Arctic villages, and furnish means of instructing in seamanship the natives along that coast.

LIST OF PERSONS IN THE ALASKA SCHOOL SERVICE (EXCLUSIVE OF TEACHERS), 1911-12.

William T. Lopp, superintendent of education of natives of Alaska and chief of the Alaska Division, Alaska.

EMPLOYEES IN THE WASHINGTON OFFICE.

William Hamilton, Alaskan assistant, Pennsylvania.

David E. Thomas, clerk, Massachusetts.

Julius C. Helwig, junior clerk, Indiana.

Mrs. Lottie E. Condron, stenographer and typewriter, District of Columbia.

EMPLOYEES IN THE SUPPLY AND DISBURSING OFFICE, SEATTLE.

Harry C. Sinclair, supply agent, Maryland.

Alexander H. Quarles, special disbursing agent, Georgia.

Chauncey C. Bestor, clerk, Washington.

Miss Florence P. Hutchinson, stenographer and typewriter, Washington.

EMPLOYEES IN ALASKA.

Superintendents.

Andrew N. Evans, district superintendent of schools in the northwestern district of Alaska, Nome.

George E. Boulter, district superintendent of schools in the upper Yukon district of Alaska, Tanana.

Henry O. Schaleben, district superintendent of schools in the southwestern district of Alaska, Seward.

William G. Beattie, district superintendent of schools in the southeastern district of Alaska, Juneau.

Special disbursing agent and assistant to the district superintendent of schools in the Northwestern District of Alaska.

Walter C. Shields, Nome.

Physicians.

Henry O. Schaleben, M. D., superintendent southwestern district, Seward.

Paul J. Mahone, M. D., Juneau.

Bruce H. Brown, M. D., Russian Mission and lower Yukon region.

Daniel S. Neuman, M. D., Nome.

Linus H. French, M. D., Nushagak.

Ovid B. Orr, M. D., Akhiok, Kodiak Island.

Milton H. Foster, M. D., Public Health Service, on special detail, July 1 to September 8, 1911.

Emil Krulish, M. D., Public Health Service, on special detail, after April 21, 1912.

Contract physicians.

H. R. Marsh, M. D., Point Barrow.

Curtis Welch, M. D., Council.

Nurses and teachers of sanitation.

Miss Angelica A. Babbitt, Killisnoo.

Miss Louise C. McConnel, southeastern district, July 23, 1911, to April 20, 1912.

Miss Jean V. Rankin, Juneau.

Miss Elsie H. Peterson, Juneau, February 17, 1912, to June 30, 1912.

Mrs. E. C. Seward, Nushagak.

Mrs. Rebekah B. Young, southwestern district.

Mrs. C. W. Hawkesworth, Hydaburg.

Miss Louise C. MacCormac, upper Yukon district, July 1 to August 31, 1911.

Contract hospitals.

Holy Cross Hospital, Nome.

Fairhaven Hospital, Candle.

TABLE 1.—*Teachers, school attendance, and length of term, 1911-12.*

NORTHWESTERN DISTRICT—ARCTIC OCEAN AND BERING SEA REGIONS, AS FAR SOUTH AS CAPE NEWENHAM.

Schools.	Teacher.	Appointed from—	Average daily attendance.	Enrollment.	Length of term in months.
Akiak.....	John H. Kibbuck	Alaska.....	32	46	12
Akulurak.....	Mary Laurentia.....	do.....	41	50	7
Barrow.....	Delbert W. Cram.....	Washington.....	67	98	12
Do.....	Mrs. Bebe C. Cram.....	do.....			
Do.....	Alice Ahlook.....	Alaska.....			
Bethel.....	Samuel H. Rock.....	do.....	21	30	8
Council.....	Charles W. Snow.....	Maine.....	16	34	9
Deering.....	Iva Kenworthy.....	Alaska.....	24	63	8
Diomede.....	James H. Hamilton.....	Indiana.....	16	33	10
Do.....	Charles Menadelook.....	Alaska.....			
Gambell.....	Miss A. C. Anderson.....	Nebraska.....	55	143	12
Do.....	Theoline Ingwaldsen.....	Washington.....			
Golovin.....	Anna L. Hagberg.....	Illinois.....	37	56	8
Do.....	Mary K. Westdahl.....	Alaska.....			
Goodnews Bay.....	Claude M. Allison.....	Washington.....	22	68	12
Hamilton.....	Oscar M. Groves.....	do.....	11	22	8
Hooper Bay.....	Charles F. Richardson.....	do.....	30	92	12
Icy Cape.....	James V. Geary.....	California.....	16	37	
Do.....	Mrs. Eva W. Geary.....	do.....			
Do.....	Hannah C. Ahnevuk.....	Alaska.....			
Igloo.....	H. D. Reese.....	Pennsylvania.....	18	41	12
Kinak.....	John W. Lively.....	Washington.....	12	38	12
Kivalina.....	Raymond A. Bates.....	Alaska.....	19	56	10
Do.....	Margaret E. Bates.....	do.....			
Koserefsky.....	Mary Bernadette.....	do.....	100	104	8
Do.....	Onesime Lacouture.....	do.....			
Kotzebue.....	Mrs. Lucy W. Cox.....	California.....	30	69	7
Do.....	Marie MacLeod.....	Alaska.....			
Koyukuk.....	Chester C. Pidgeon.....	Washington.....	7	35	12
Louden.....	Mrs. Ella E. Eby.....	Alaska.....	9	29	9
Mountain Village.....	Walter E. Cochran.....	West Virginia.....	11	22	12
Do.....	Mrs. Minnie Cochran.....	do.....			
Noatak.....	Elmer M. Harnden.....	Washington.....	27	34	12
Nome.....	Walter H. Johnson.....	Alaska.....	19	40	12
Nulato.....	Mary W. Salley.....	do.....	36	53	8
Pilot Station.....	Mrs. Catherine Kilborn.....	Pennsylvania.....	17	59	10
Point Hope.....	Fred M. Sickler.....	Indiana.....	26	93	10
Quinhagak.....	Mrs. Anna C. Rehmel.....	Iowa.....	18	37	9
Russian Mission.....	Mrs. Clara M. Brown.....	Missouri.....	9	14	7
St. Michael.....	Ernest W. Hawkes.....	South Dakota.....	21	86	12
Do.....	Annie Aloka.....	Alaska.....			
Selawik.....	Leslie G. Sickles.....	Washington.....	22	59	12
Shageluk.....	H. Ray Fuller.....	do.....	12	29	12
Shishmaref.....	George B. Heffler.....	do.....	22	36	10
Shungnak.....	Charles D. Jones.....	do.....	31	61	11
Sinuk.....	William B. Van Valin.....	do.....	15	31	9
Teller.....	Jorgine Enestvedt.....	do.....	9	20	8
Unalakleet.....	Eimer E. Van Ness.....	Tennessee.....	48	89	10
Do.....	Mrs. Euha W. Van Ness.....	do.....			
Do.....	Samuel Anaruk.....	Alaska.....			
Do.....	EBba Tomron.....	do.....			
Wainwright.....	Fay R. Shaver.....	Washington.....	21	45	12
Wales.....	Mattie Caldwell.....	Missouri.....	52	64	12
Do.....	Arthur Nagozruk.....	Alaska.....			
Total.....			999	2,016	

TABLE 1.—*Teachers, school attendance, and length of term, 1911-12—Continued.*

UPPER YUKON DISTRICT—VALLEYS OF THE YUKON AND ITS TRIBUTARIES BETWEEN 141° AND 156°.

Schools.	Teacher.	Appointed from—	Average daily attendance.	Enrollment.	Length of term in months.
Circle	Ethel Ellis.....	Missouri.....	9	19	8
Eagle	Mary L. Hammond.....	Alaska.....	8	16	8
Kokrines	Julius Jette.....	do.....	6	16	7
Stevens Camp	Lawyer E. Rivenburg.....	New York.....	16	47	12
Tanana	Miss Orah D. Clark.....	Washington.....	7	25	9
Yukon	Gertrude K. Nielsen.....	do.....	16	50	10
Total.....			62	173

SOUTHWESTERN DISTRICT—BERING SEA REGION, SOUTH OF CAPE NEWENHAM, AND NORTH PACIFIC COAST REGION WEST OF 141°.

Akhiok.....	Mrs. Viola E. Orr.....	California.....	20	53	8½
Atka.....	Harry G. Seller.....	Washington.....	28	49	12
Do.....	Mrs. Katherine D. Seller.....	do.....			
Chignik.....	Jessamine E. Millikan.....	Indiana.....	16	26	4
Chogiuung.....	Mary Watson.....	Washington.....	23	57	12
Copper Center.....	Lucius A. Jones.....	do.....	7	26	12
Iliamna.....	Hannah B. Breece.....	Alaska.....	22	40	12
Kanakanak.....	Thomas W. Schultz.....	Pennsylvania.....	11	28	12
Kenai.....	Willietta E. Dolan.....	Oregon.....	39	82	10
Do.....	Alice M. Dolan.....	do.....			
Kogiuung.....	John J. Cavana.....	Alaska.....	14	26	8
Kulukak.....	Warren L. Call.....	Washington.....	25	54	12
Do.....	Mrs. Corinne Call.....	do.....			
Nushagak.....	Mrs. Lydia Y. Fountain.....	New York.....	19	42	10
Seldovia.....	Preston H. Nash.....	Washington.....	22	33	8
Susitna.....	Jessamine E. Millikan.....	Indiana.....	20	31	8
Tatitlek.....	Chesley W. Cook.....	Washington.....	22	39	12
Do.....	Mrs. Mary Cook.....	do.....			
Togiak.....	John S. Calkins.....	Montana.....	13	28	12
Tyonek.....	Harry N. Cooper.....	Washington.....	37	56	10
Ugashik.....	John C. Lowe.....	do.....	17	39	12
Unalaska.....	Noah C. Davenport.....	do.....	53	70	12
Do.....	Mrs. Clara E. Davenport.....	do.....			
Do.....	Mrs. Mary Lavigne.....	Alaska.....			
Total.....			408	779

SOUTHEASTERN DISTRICT—NORTH PACIFIC COAST REGION EAST OF 141°.

Craig.....	Edna L. Freeman.....	Alaska.....	17	45	3
Douglas.....	Esther Johnson.....	Oregon.....	20	71	7
Do.....	Isabelle S. Thursby.....	Illinois.....			
Haines.....	Benjamin B. McMullin.....	Washington.....	15	49	7
Hoona.....	Elnora Ginther.....	Oregon.....	31	111	7
Hydaburg.....	Charles W. Hawkesworth.....	Alaska.....	33	55	12
Do.....	William L. Hughes.....	Washington.....			
Do.....	Flora A. Hughes.....	do.....			
Juneau.....	Mrs. Marie B. Slightam.....	Alaska.....	14	79	8
Kake.....	Mrs. A. C. Martin.....	do.....	26	71	5
Kasaan.....	Miss Nora Dawson.....	Missouri.....	13	25	7½
Killisnoo.....	Helen C. Moyer.....	Washington.....	24	49	7
Klawock.....	Cora B. Hawk.....	Pennsylvania.....	22	55	7½
Do.....	Verna Mercer.....	Ohio.....			
Do.....	Edith Z. Mercer.....	do.....			
Klukwan.....	Nellie M. Taylor.....	Nebraska.....	21	64	7
Klinquan.....	Charles W. Hawkesworth.....	Alaska.....			
Loring.....	Mrs. Leona M. Goodheart.....	Washington.....	11	22	6
Petersburg.....	Merle J. Gibson.....	do.....	7	36	7½
Saxman.....	A. Charlotte Doren.....	Alaska.....	9	50	7
Shakan.....	Carl A. Swanson.....	Minnesota.....	12	42	7
Sitka.....	Cassia Patton.....	Alaska.....	28	110	8
Do.....	Jeannette H. Wright.....	Washington.....			
Wrangell.....	Mrs. Ida M. Pusey.....	Iowa.....	16	56	7½
Yakutat.....	Elof M. Axelson.....	Illinois.....	17	60	9
Total.....			336	1,050
Grand total.....			1,805	4,018

TABLE 1.—*Teachers, school attendance, and length of term, 1911-12—Continued.*
TRAVELING TEACHERS.

Schools.	Teacher.	Appointed from—	Average daily attendance.	Enrollment.	Length of term in months.
Unalakleet.....	Misha Ivanoff.....	Alaska.....			
Nome.....	Thomas Ilhayok.....	(do.....			

Summary of averages of Table 1, 1911-12.

	Daily attendance per school.	Enrollment per school.
Northwestern district.....	26	53
Upper Yukon district.....	10	29
Southwestern district.....	23	43
Southeastern district.....	19	58
All schools.....	23	50

TABLE 2.—*Comparative statistics, Alaska school service, 1907-1912.*

	1907	1912	Increase.
Schools.....	52	80	28
Superintendents.....	3	4	1
Assistant superintendent.....		1	1
Regular teachers:			
White.....	54	95	41
Native.....	5	12	7
Traveling teachers (natives).....		2	2
Total teachers.....	59	109	50
Nurses and teachers of sanitation.....		8	8
Regular physicians.....		5	5
Superintendent serving also as physician.....		1	1
Contract physicians.....		2	2
Physicians from Public Health Service (on special detail).....		1	1
Total in work pertaining to health.....		18	18
Total number of superintendents, assistant superintendents, physicians, nurses, and teachers, under appointment in Alaska.....	62	127	65
Number of unmarried appointees.....		52	
Number of married appointees.....		75	
Number of persons not under appointment who accompanied appointees.....		37	
Total number of field workers.....		164	
School buildings erected, 1907-1912.....			48

TABLE 3.—*Summary of expenditures from the fund for "Education of natives of Alaska, 1911-12."*

Appropriation.....	\$200,000.00
Salaries of officials and clerks.....	\$14,180.17
Salaries of superintendents.....	9,680.00
Salaries of teachers.....	86,004.84
Traveling expenses of inspectors, superintendents, and teachers.....	11,403.55
Textbooks, stationery, apparatus, furniture, and industrial supplies.....	18,074.05

Fuel and light.....	\$15,595.20
Local expenses.....	2,018.97
Repairs and rent.....	4,613.83
Erection of buildings.....	10,022.73
Sanitation and medical relief.....	25,144.50
Relief of destitution.....	1,394.95
Expenses of offices.....	1,485.94
Reserved for contingencies.....	381.27
Total	\$200,000.00

THE ALASKA REINDEER SERVICE.

The reports from the reindeer stations for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1912, show a total of 38,476 reindeer, distributed among 54 herds. Of the 38,476 reindeer, 24,068, or 62.5 per cent, are owned by 633 natives; 3,776, or 9.8 per cent, are owned by the United States; 4,511, or 11.7 per cent, are owned by missions; and 6,121, or 16 per cent, are owned by Lapps.

At an average value of \$25 per head, the 24,068 reindeer owned by the natives represent a capital of \$601,700. The total income of the natives from the reindeer industry during said fiscal year, exclusive of the value of meat and hides used by the natives themselves, was \$44,885.04.

The reindeer industry affects the entire coastal region from Point Barrow to the Alaska Peninsula—a region approximating in length the distance from Maine to South Carolina. A line connecting the 54 herds would be more than 5,000 miles in length.

There are 633 native owners of reindeer, whose immediate families number approximately 2,500; in addition, approximately 4,000 natives are affected by the reindeer enterprise, obtaining reindeer products in exchange for their own wares. Accordingly, the total number of natives affected by the reindeer enterprise may be estimated to be about 6,500. Attention is especially invited to the statements included in Tables 9 and 10, which set forth the cost and results of the introduction of reindeer among the natives of Alaska.

There yet remain to be reached by the reindeer industry in Alaska the upper Kuskokwim and the Copper River regions and the coast east of Point Barrow; also Nunivak, Kodiak, and the Aleutian Islands. The establishment of herds in these regions will complete the means for gradually stocking with reindeer all of the untimbered regions of Alaska adapted for that industry.

During August, 1911, 40 reindeer from the herd at Unalakleet were delivered to the Department of Commerce and Labor, 25 were placed on St. Paul Island and 15 on St. George Island. In June, 1912, the reindeer on St. Paul Island had increased to 40 and those on St. George to 25.

TABLE 4.—General statistics of the Alaska reindeer service.

Lapps.		Natives.				Apprentices.				Sled reindeer. ²				Income from sale of meat, freighting, etc.		
		Herders.	Owners. ¹	Govern-ment.	Mission.	Lapps.	Henries and owners.	Rendeer.	Number.	Rendeer.	Number.	Total apprentices.	Native.	Missions.	Lapps.	Total.
Stations and herds.																
Barrow No. 1.	1898	844	75			5	516	13	151	1	6		24	768	37	8
Barrow No. 2.	1909	450				2	318	1	45				3	450	31	
Bethel No. 1.	1901	1,226		927		4	195	3	13		5		5	12	37	10
Bethel No. 2 (Kihalain).	1911	972											1	1	28	
Bethel No. 3 (Kivigulik).	1912	275				3	268	2	7				1	1	28	
Bethel No. 4 (Nuvukuk).	1907	633				6	611						4	28	41	25
Buckland.	1902	1,573				1	1,378						4	52	4	5
Bethel No. 5 (Taulusak).	1911	690	97			3	501	8	48				3	44	3	14
Cape Douglas.	1911	531	1	5		4	470	5	18				3	37	3	12
Hogoung.	1910	312	158										3	525	12	8
council.	1907	708	149			6	388	17	111	1	7		5	154	6	2
Engineering No. 1.	1905	850				5	496	14	151		2		3	33	5	11
(Good Hope River).	1911	524				3	425	3	20		2		2	36	2	12
Gavik.	1907	667				1	637						2	30	1	21
Gambell.	1900	803	70			6	631	2	18		1		3	11	73	40
Glaciorin No. 1.	1896	1,247	2	748		2	86	16	277		6		6	24	495	7
Glaciorin No. 2.	1908	900				1	900						2	132	6	2
Golosovka.	1907	1,039	28	5		3	247	7	738	1	39		2	12	3	13
Goodnoes Bay (Quinhagak).	1909	521	308				1	96					5	117	5	6
Holy Cross.	1911	494											5	41	5	6
Holyrooper Bay.	1912	303	259										1	17	5	44
Holy Cape.	1906	506	51										1	12	60	25
Eloko No. 1.	1907	508	15										1	2	17	483
Eloko No. 2.	1912	690	20										5	452	11	188
Floraffik.	1910	964											1	16	1	17
Fiamma.	1905	467	116										6	744	13	22
													3	88	3	22
													1	103	11	2
													1	268	1	72
													3	351	3	28

Total.....	38,476	3,776	4,511	14	6,121	141	15,016	331	5,251	72	1,837	30	683	2	58	57	1,223	161	633	24,068	1,281	211	5,643	9,904	44,885	60,432		
Kinak.....	423	278	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Kivalina.....	1910	423	165	165	3	227	15	158	3	61	5	125	5	125	5	125	5	125	5	125	5	125	5	125	5	125	5	
Kogtung ⁴	1905	684	84	84	2	205	5	192	5	192	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	
Kotzebue No. 1.....	1909	1,394	1	441	4	300	16	605	5	192	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	147	5	
Kotzebue No. 2 ⁴	1910	1,327	·	·	6	1,327	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Kulnik ⁴	1912	169	128	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Mountain Village.....	1908	339	286	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Noatak.....	1910	495	171	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Point Hope.....	1908	1,234	251	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Selawik.....	1909	613	233	10	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Shartoflik.....	1907	903	6	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Shishmaref No. 1.....	1905	620	41	1	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Shishmaref No. 2.....	1909	1,629	·	·	3	1,345	11	174	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Shishmaref No. 3.....	1910	445	·	·	3	399	3	39	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Shungnak.....	1907	638	174	·	·	5	299	11	111	1	64	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·			
Sinuk.....	1907	342	4	150	·	·	2	124	5	25	·	·	3	59	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·			
Spruce Creek (from Tumbuitlik).....	1912	316	·	1	3	177	8	134	·	·	·	·	·	·	1	4	1	12	315	310	32	·	·	·	·			
Louden (Tanaana).....	1905	562	72	88	1	103	4	297	·	·	·	·	·	·	1	4	2	297	14	14	4	297	14	14	4	297	14	
Teller.....	1892	934	3	295	·	·	4	170	10	401	1	1	5	97	2	29	1	36	3	17	636	33	33	8	269	3		
Togik.....	1911	220	122	·	·	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5	6	5	6	98	3	8	4	330	3	
Tubunlik ⁴	1910	314	·	·	1	197	3	117	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	4	314	18	4	314	18	4	314	18	4	
Ugashik.....	1910	446	330	·	·	187	4	373	4	25	5	116	5	116	5	116	5	116	5	116	5	116	5	116	5	116	5	
Unalakleet (North River)	1897	632	·	·	3	623	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Unalakleet (South River)	1911	630	·	·	3	623	10	612	19	186	2	12	1	1	34	3	32	843	78	78	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	
Wainwright.....	1907	926	83	·	·	3	481	20	458	4	152	·	·	·	4	152	·	·	4	27	1,091	20	6	1,091	20	6	1,091	20
Wales No. 1, and Mint River ⁴	{ 1894, 1911,	2,161	·	1,060	·	6	14	·	2	672	19	150	·	·	·	3	99	3	24	921	33	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Wales No. 2.....	1908	941	6	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·	·		
Total.....	·	38,476	3,776	4,511	14	6,121	141	15,016	331	5,251	72	1,837	30	683	2	58	57	1,223	161	633	24,068	1,281	211	5,643	9,904	44,885	60,432	

⁴ No report received; all figures estimated.³ Estimated.² Included in total.¹ By purchase or inheritance.

TABLE 5.—*Increase in reindeer service from 1907 to 1912.*

	1907	1912			1907	1912
Total natives owning reindeer.....	114	633	Sled reindeer:			
Herders and owners.....	57	472	Trained.....		445	1,281
Government apprentices.....	17	72	Partly trained.....		77	211
Mission apprentices.....	28	30	Income of natives from reindeer.....	\$7,783	\$44,885	
Lapp apprentices.....	7	2	Total income from reindeer.....	\$9,563	\$60,432	
Herders' and owners' apprentices.....	27	57	Percentage of reindeer owned by—			
Total apprentices.....	79	161	Government.....	23.0	9.8	
Reindeer owned by natives.....	6,406	24,068	Missions.....	22.0	11.7	
			Lapps.....	14.0	16.0	
			Natives.....	41.0	62.5	

TABLE 6.—*Number of reindeer belonging to each class of owners in 1911-12.*

Owners.	Number of reindeer.		Increase or decrease.		Per cent owned.	
	1911	1912	Number.	Per cent.	1911	1912
Government.....	3,951	3,776	— 175	— 4	11	9.8
Missions.....	4,663	4,511	— 152	— 3	14	11.7
Lapps.....	4,944	6,121	+1,177	+24	15	16.0
Natives.....	20,071	24,068	+3,997	+20	60	62.5
Total.....	33,629	38,476	+4,847	+14

TABLE 7.—*Annual increase and decrease of reindeer.*

Years.	Balance from previous year.	Fawns surviving.	Imported from Siberia.	Butchered or died.	Total in herd June 30.	Per cent of annual increase.	
						By fawns.	Net (since importation ceased).
1802.....				171	28	143
1803.....	143	79	124	23	323	55
1804.....	323	145	120	96	492	45
1805.....	492	276	123	148	743	56
1806.....	743	357		100	1,000	48
1807.....	1,000	466	1	334	1,132	46
1808.....	1,132	625	161	185	1,733	55
1809.....	1,733	638	322	299	2,394	37
1900.....	2,394	756	29	487	2,692	32
1901.....	2,692	1,110	200	538	3,464	41
1902.....	3,464	1,654	30	353	4,795	48
1903.....	4,795	1,877		390	6,282	39	31
1904.....	6,282	2,284		377	8,189	36	30
1905.....	8,189	2,978		926	10,241	36	25
1906.....	10,241	3,717		1,130	12,828	36	25
1907.....	12,828	4,519		1,508	15,839	35	23
1908 ²	15,839	5,416		1,933	19,322	34	21
1909 ²	19,322	6,437		2,844	22,915	33	18
1910 ²	22,915	7,239		2,829	27,325	32	19
1911 ²	27,325	9,496		3,192	33,629	35	23
1912 ²	33,629	11,254		6,407	38,476	33	14
Total.....		61,323	1,280	24,127	3 41	3 23

¹ 246 killed in Barrow relief expedition.² Some of the figures which make up these totals are estimated.³ Average.

TABLE 8.—*Expenditure of appropriation "Reindeer for Alaska, 1912."*

Appropriation.....	\$12,000.00
Salaries of chief herders.....	\$520.00
Support of apprentices.....	9,931.76
Establishment of new herds.....	675.00
Reserved for contingencies.....	873.24
Total.....	12,000.00

TABLE 9.—*Showing cost and results of introduction of reindeer in Alaska.*

	First ten years (1893- 1902).	Next five years (1903- 1907).	Last five years (1908- 1912).	Total.
Appropriations.....	\$133,000	\$99,000	\$60,000	\$292,000
Number of herds established.....	9	7	38	54
Number of natives owning reindeer.....	68	56	419	633
Average cost per native apprentice.....	\$2,000	\$1,800	\$143	\$475
Net number of reindeer received by natives.....	2,841	3,565	17,662	24,068
Valuation of same.....	\$71,025	\$89,125	\$441,550	\$601,700
Income received by natives.....	\$4,500	\$5,500	\$132,510	\$142,510
Number of Government reindeer at end of period.....	2,247	4,684	3,776	3,776
Valuation of same.....	\$56,175	\$117,200	\$94,400	\$94,400

TABLE 10.—*Showing wealth produced by introduction of reindeer in Alaska.*

Valuation of 24,068 reindeer owned by natives in 1912, at \$25 each.....	\$601,700
Total income of natives from reindeer, 1893-1912.....	142,510
Valuation of 14,408 reindeer owned by missions, Laplanders, and Government, 1912.....	360,200
Total income of missions and Laplanders from reindeer, 1893-1912.....	57,650
Total valuation and income.....	1,162,060
Total Government appropriations, 1893-1912.....	292,000
Gain (298 per cent).....	870,000

TABLE 11.—*Reindeer loaned and transferred to missions and Laplanders.*

Station or individual.	Number loaned.	When loaned.	Expiration of loan.
Bahr, O. O. (Unalakleet).....	100	July 1, 1901	June 30, 1906
Bals, N. P. (Eaton).....	100	Mar. —, 1906	Mar. —, 1911
Bals, P. N. (Eaton).....	100	Mar. —, 1906	Mar. —, 1911
Bango, I. (Tanana).....	100	Mar. —, 1906	Mar. —, 1911
Bethel (Moravian).....	176	Feb. 26, 1901	Feb. 26, 1906
Deering (Friends).....	100	Jan. 18, 1905	Jan. 18, 1910
Golofnin (Swedish Evangelical).....	50	Jan. 16, 1896	Jan. 16, 1899
Klemetsen, N. (Golofnin).....	100	July 1, 1902	June 30, 1907
Kotzebue (Friends).....	95	Sept. 2, 1901	Sept. 2, 1906
Nilima, A. S. (Kotzebue).....	99	July —, 1901	June 30, 1906
Nulato (Roman Catholic).....	100	Mar. —, 1901	Mar. —, 1906
Sara, N. P. (Bethel).....	100	July —, 1901	June 30, 1906
Sinuk (Methodist).....	100	Oct. 29, 1907	Transfer.
Do.....	49	Jan. 27, 1910	Do.
Spein, P. M. (Bethel).....	100	July —, 1901	June 30, 1906
Tanana (Episcopal).....	100	Mar. —, 1906	Mar. —, 1911
Teller (Norwegian Lutheran).....	100	Sept. 1, 1900	Sept. 1, 1905
Unalakleet (Swedish Evangelical).....	140	July 1, 1903	June 30, 1908
Wales (Congregational).....	118	Aug. —, 1894	Transfer.

In December, 1905, the herd at Nulato was transferred to the Roman Catholic mission at Koserefsky, and in 1908 from Koserefsky to Mountain Village, where it was cared for temporarily by the Government in connection with the Government herd at that station. In December, 1911, the herd was returned to Koserefsky from Mountain Village.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. T. LOPP,
Chief of Alaska Division.

The COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

INDIAN EDUCATION.

Its Development and Present Status.

Prepared under the direction of F. H. Abbott, Acting Commissioner of Indian Affairs.

IN THE BEGINNING.

The beginning of the education of the American Indian dates back many years before the War of the Revolution. Roman Catholic missionaries accompanied the expedition of Narvaez to Florida early in the sixteenth century, and in 1567 the education of the Florida Indians was undertaken by the Jesuits. The educational work of the missions was chiefly along the lines of industrial and domestic progress, as well as in architecture and various kinds of artistic handicraft. They introduced foreign plants, including wheat, peaches, and grapes, and educated the Indians in their cultivation and uses. Early French Catholic missions were established among the Abnaki in Maine, the Hurons in Michigan and Ohio, the Iroquois in New York, and the Ottawas in Wisconsin.

The first English settlers gave evidence of a desire for some kind of education of the savages who surrounded them, as was evidenced in the resolution passed by the council at Jamestown, Va., in 1610, to give an education to Indian children in religion, civics, and some useful trade. The superintendent of Henrico College, in 1621, gave a brief account of his labors in this regard.

A notable attempt to educate Indian young people was made at the College of William and Mary, in Virginia. On conditions specified by one of the contributors to the support of that institution, which was founded in 1691, Indians were maintained there.

Even before that time, however, reasonably successful attempts had also been made to educate the Indian. Remarkable pioneer work was done by the Rev. John Eliot, who familiarized himself with the language, disposition, and character of the Indians in Massachusetts.

He secured their confidence and respect and stimulated in their hearts reverence and a sincere desire for industry and thrift, godliness and purity of life of which New England communities afforded an example. Those who would follow him were gathered into towns, where he taught them the liberties and responsibilities of township government and the devices and institutions of civilized life, among which the church and school naturally occupied places of honor. A number of Indian youths were induced to attend English schools to prepare themselves for missionary work among their own people.

Mr. Eliot was warmly supported in his work by both church and civil authorities. His work began in 1646, and in 1674 there were 14 towns of "praying Indians," whose schools and churches in the majority of instances were administered by educated natives. At the same time an Indian college had been founded at Cambridge. Yet this success was swept away by the fears and prejudices which developed under the baneful influences of the Indian wars.

Other efforts in the eighteenth century to civilize the Indian were robbed of their fruits by similar causes, intensified by a number of disorganizing factors incident to the revolutionary period. Prominent among these efforts was the work of Rev. John Sergeant, at Stockbridge, in Massachusetts, and that of Rev. Eleazer Wheelock, in Connecticut and New Hampshire.

The work of Mr. Sergeant, involving the establishment of day schools, a boarding school, and an experimental "outing system," was almost ideal in conception, but it ended with the deportation of the Indians to the west. Dr. Wheelock's efforts led to the establishment of an effective training school and, indirectly, to the creation of Dartmouth College "for the education and instruction of youths of the Indian tribes in this land in reading, writing, and all parts of learning which shall appear necessary and expedient for civilizing and Christianizing the children of pagans, as well as in all liberal arts and sciences, and also of English youths and any others." Only the last purpose became a reality.

BEGINNING OF GOVERNMENTAL INDIAN EDUCATION.

The government of the confederacy, as well as individual citizens, made efforts before the Revolution to give the Indians the benefit of education. The first effort of this kind was made by the Continental Congress on July 12, 1775, when it passed a bill appropriating \$500 for the education of Indian youths at Dartmouth College, New Hampshire. On February 5, 1776, the Committee on Indian Affairs of the Continental Congress asked that body to request the Com-

missioners of Indian Affairs to "consider of proper places in their respective departments for the residence of ministers and school-masters, and report the same to Congress." This request was prompted by the consideration, as expressed by its Committee on Indian Affairs—

That a friendly commerce between the people of the United Colonies and the Indians and the propagation of the Gospel, and the cultivation of the civil arts among the latter, might produce many and estimable advantages to both the United Colonies and the Indians.

However, there is no record that this report was made to Congress.

After the Revolution the attention of the people was again attracted to the Indian, and on December 2, 1794, the first Indian treaty in which anything pertaining to education appeared was made with the Oneida, Tuscarora, and Stockbridge Indians, "who had faithfully adhered to the United States and assisted them with their warriors" during the Revolution. This treaty provided that the United States should employ one or two persons to manage and keep in repair certain mills which were to be built for the Indians, and "to instruct some young men of the three nations in the arts of the miller and sawyer." The second treaty made with the Indians in which education was referred to was with the Kaskaskia Tribe, of Illinois, at Vincennes, Indiana Territory, on August 13, 1803.

FIRST CONGRESSIONAL APPROPRIATION FOR INDIAN EDUCATION.

Up to the time of the Kaskaskia treaty it appears that the treaty-making officers of the United States did not believe that there was any necessity for the education of Indians; this need was not fully recognized until some years later. It was not until 1819 that further action was taken indicating the belief that the privileges of education should be extended to the Indians. In that year a law was enacted authorizing the President to employ capable persons to instruct Indians in agriculture and to educate their children in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and appropriating \$10,000 for the purpose. In 1820 the President was authorized to apply \$10,000 annually in the aid of societies and individuals engaged in the education of Indians. In 1823 the sum of \$80,000 was expended in the education of the Indians, of which amount \$12,000 had been contributed by the Government. In 1825 the amount expended had increased to \$202,000, of which the Government contributed \$25,000. In 1848 there were reported in operation 16 manual-labor schools, 87 boarding schools and other schools. These schools continued to increase in number and efficiency up to 1873. They were under the

control of missionary bodies with such scanty aid from the Government as the small appropriations afforded.

GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATION TAKES ON NEW LIFE.

In 1876 the sum of \$20,000 was appropriated "for the support of industrial schools, and other educational purposes, for the Indian tribes." This appears to have been the beginning of a new effort by the Government to educate the children of Indians living under its jurisdiction, for after that year it entered upon an era of almost feverish activity in the establishment of strictly Government Indian schools—first day schools, then boarding schools and industrial training schools. Congress kept pace with this zeal in the liberality of its appropriations. In 1877 it appropriated for schools, outside of treaty provisions, \$20,000; in 1880, \$75,000; in 1885, \$992,800; in 1890, \$1,364,568; in 1895, \$2,060,695; and in 1899, \$2,638,390. During this period the average attendance rose from 3,598 in 1877 to 19,648 in 1898. The sum of \$3,757,495 was appropriated by the Government during the fiscal year 1912 for educational purposes, the enrollment in all Government schools reaching 25,187.

With the increased appropriations by Congress for the education of Indians came the policy forbidding the appropriation of public funds for denominational purposes. However, many denominations continued and are continuing their schools for the education of the Indian.

In 1881 the sum of \$1,000 was appropriated for the establishment of Carlisle School, which had been founded in 1879 when Capt. R. H. Pratt, of the United States Army, brought a number of Indian prisoners of war from Florida for the purpose of giving them educational advantages. This was the first nonreservation Indian school.

Since 1881 the Federal Government has maintained three kinds of schools for the education of its Indian wards, and it may be well to describe them briefly.

KINDS OF INDIAN SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY THE GOVERNMENT.

Day schools are located in Indian villages or near Indian camps and settlements. The instruction in these schools is of the simplest character. The children are taught to speak, read, and write English; to cipher, to draw, and to sing. In a large number of day schools the boys receive instruction in gardening and in the use of the tools and implements that are always needed around the home. The girls are taught to sew, launder, and cook. Day schools, as a rule, in addition to the conventional schoolroom work, achieve much in encouraging better ways of living and they are valuable factors

in uplifting the race. They reconcile the Indian to the idea of sending his children to school and render him more willing in due time to intrust them to the care of boarding schools as well as more ready to appreciate and to accept the lessons of civilization. These schools are social centers as well as educational centers in Indian settlements.

Reservation boarding schools are located within the territory reserved for some tribe or tribes of Indians. Each one is in charge of a superintendent. In addition to the conventional instruction, the girls receive training in domestic work and the boys are trained in industrial work, such as farming, painting, harnessmaking, shoemaking, carpentering, dairying, etc. In 1894 kindergarten methods were introduced in these schools as well as in some of the day schools with good results.

Experience has taught that the half-day instruction method is one of wisdom and prudence. Confinement all day in the classroom is hard upon people who have been used to roaming at will over the plains; the interests of the schoolroom are foreign to their heredity and traditions. Therefore, the plan of spending half the day in the classroom and the other half in the industrial departments or on the farm has worked beneficially. The industrial features of the work appeal more or less to the Indian tastes, and they stimulate interest in the parents as well as in the pupils. In the classroom, too, the industrial subjects furnish material for practice and discussion that is welcomed by the pupil. It is thus easier to overcome aversion and to secure an appreciative and sympathetic attitude on the part of the children. It has been conclusively demonstrated that where the half-day practice has not been put into use the pupils make less progress, are backward in physical and intellectual development, and are morally less earnest and responsible than the children in the schools conducted on the half-day plan.

These boarding schools are not only places for formal instruction, but they are the pupils' homes as well. The institution gives them food, clothing, and shelter; it accustoms them to habits of cleanliness and decency; it develops their better nature; it labors to secure right moral attitude, and gives opportunity for the missionaries of the several churches to impart the truths of Christianity and to stimulate the religious life of the children.

Nonreservation boarding schools.—At present 23 such institutions are conducted by the Government. The pupils at these schools are as a rule more advanced in years than those at reservation schools. Usually they have had some training in reservation day and boarding schools. The minimum age limit for enrollment in nonreservation

schools is 14 years, and the children must have had enough previous training, in most cases, to take them as far as the second grade.

The classroom work is more thorough and more extended, and reaches far into the advanced grammar-school course of study, laying special stress upon language practice, arithmetic, geography, history, nature study, drawing, music, and civil government. The facilities for training in the domestic and industrial arts are much greater than in the reservation schools, and the effectiveness of the instruction in these subjects is much enhanced by the fact that pupils have frequent opportunity to observe the practical application and the value of these arts in the environment of the schools.

The instruction imparted enables the boys to go out and earn good salaries as mechanics, and the girls to become good housekeepers and helpful wives. Several of the larger nonreservation schools have added business and agricultural departments. The latter are particularly important, since the majority of Indians are landowners.

OTHER SCHOOLS EDUCATING INDIANS.

Contract schools.—In addition to maintaining these strictly Government schools, the Indian Office contracts each year with certain mission schools for the education of a number of Indian children. Until June 30, 1912, Congress appropriated money for the education of 120 Indian children at the Hampton Institute, in Virginia. The outing system was originated at Hampton and has grown to be an educational factor of vast importance at Carlisle. In 1912 Congress withdrew its annual appropriation for the education of Indians at Hampton.

THE SCHOOLS OF THE FIVE CIVILIZED TRIBES.

These schools are located in the territory of the Five Civilized Tribes, in Oklahoma (formerly Indian Territory). At the present time the administration of school matters in this territory differs but little, if at all, from that of the Indian schools in other sections of the country.

NEED OF SCHOOLS AMONG THE NAVAJOS AND PAPAGOS.

Although schools have reached nearly every tribe of Indians in the United States, there still remain two tribes of Indians—the Navajo and Papago—that are sadly in need of school facilities. Several schools have been established among them, but they are entirely inadequate to meet the demands. It is estimated, after careful investigation, that there are more than 5,000 Navajo children who have no school facilities. The Navajo and Papago tribes are

independent people, making their own living without outside aid. Sheep raising and goat raising are their most important industry, and the women and children as a rule take care of the flocks.

LATER PROGRESS OF INDIAN EDUCATION.

An effort has been made, by the establishment of supervisor's districts under competent supervisors making frequent inspections and reporting to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, to do work essentially constructive in character.

The sanitary regulations of the schools have been carefully revised. In addition to inspections made by school and agency physicians, traveling specialists have made examinations and have given treatment for trachoma. Victims of this disease and of tuberculosis have been segregated. Sanatoriums for the treatment of pupils afflicted with tuberculosis have been established. Outdoor sleeping porches have been provided for suspected cases, and everything practicable done to protect healthy children from contagious diseases and to cure those afflicted. Regulations governing the number of cubic feet of air space in dormitories of boarding schools have been promulgated, requiring from 400 to 500 cubic feet for each child.

A campaign for more physical training in Indian schools, through playgrounds and wholesome outdoor games and sports, has been instituted.

A serious effort has been made to eliminate from Government schools children who are ineligible and those who do not need Government aid, and an effort has been made to enroll Indian children in public schools where facilities are adequate and the home conditions of the Indian children satisfactory. Particularly has such effort been made among the children of the Five Civilized Tribes. Arrangements have been made to transfer children from one reservation school to another when the home boarding school is filled and the transfer to a nonreservation boarding school is impracticable. The importance of teaching English has been emphasized. Steps have been taken to improve the Indian home by giving girls at boarding schools special training in domestic and household duties.

To show the present status of Indian education, tables are presented below showing (1) capacity, enrollment, and average attendance of Government Indian schools for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1912; (2) enrollment of Indian pupils by States in mission, private, and public schools, and the number of eligible children not in school.

Capacity, enrollment, and average attendance of Government Indian schools for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1912.

NOTE.—The enrollment and average attendance for the year, for each school, was furnished by the superintendent in charge. The capacity of boarding schools is figured under the official ruling requiring 500 cubic feet of air space in dormitories for each pupil.

States.	Capacity.		Enrollment.		Average attendance.	
	Boarding.	Day.	Boarding.	Day.	Boarding.	Day.
Arizona	2,220	1,305	2,238	1,210	2,131	1,010
California	1,199	537	1,224	411	969	318
Colorado	45	50	58	41	55	38
Idaho	260	30	290	37	218	19
Iowa	60		74			34
Kansas	721	180	672	107	748	55
Michigan	270	32	306	38	273	23
Minnesota	761	369	849	376	705	251
Montana	415	360	455	320	384	224
Nebraska	345	30	393	18	325	15
Nevada	421	285	459	181	394	131
New Mexico	1,093	938	1,210	840	1,110	666
North Carolina	160	140	191	114	170	79
North Dakota	714	434	856	362	764	261
Oklahoma	3,176	163	3,601	123	2,932	78
Oregon	913	230	759	154	596	96
Pennsylvania	737		1,031		793	
South Dakota	1,773	1,453	1,815	1,242	1,650	982
Utah	67	65	71	39	59	30
Washington	677	563	673	475	531	355
Wisconsin	1,049	254	1,219	184	1,090	135
Wyoming	135	35	183	38	174	30
Total	17,151	7,513	18,803	6,384	16,071	4,850
				Boarding.	Day.	Total.
Capacity				17,151	7,513	24,664
Enrollment				18,803	6,384	25,187
Average attendance				16,071	4,850	20,921

Enrollment of Indian pupils outside of Government schools—eligible children not in school.

States.	Mission and private.			Public.			Total of all classes.	Eligible children not in school.		
	Contract boarding.	Noncontract:		Contract or where tuition is paid.	Non-contract.	Total.				
		Boarding.	Day.							
Arizona	535	117	652	25	25	677	4,497			
California	86		86	319	332	418	655			
Colorado				4	4	4	145			
Idaho	127		127	27	55	82	209	94		
Iowa				2	2	2	21			
Kansas	67	17	17	73	73	17	130			
Michigan		67					140	21		
Minnesota	212		212	50	513	563	775	661		
Montana	59	583	139	781	33	250	283	1,064		
Nebraska	150	30	180	112	184	296	476	214		
Nevada				4	4	4	110			
New Mexico	267	20	287	1	10	11	298	4,699		
New York ¹				100	100	100	35			
North Carolina				55	55	123	675			
North Dakota	68		68							
Oklahoma	598	39	48	685	1,336	11,473	12,809	13,651		
Oregon	2 134	2 23		2 157				2,668		
South Dakota	596	161		757	16	425	441	1,198		
Utah					21	21	21	160		
Washington	227		227	206	182	388	615	651		
Wisconsin	179	{ 67	34	280	2 1	217	217	498		
Wyoming	101			101		12	12	113		
Total	1,533	2,683	405	4,621	1,794	15,217	17,011	21,790		
Private schools	134	24		158				18,962		

¹ Not reported.

² Private schools.

Recapitulation.

Government schools:	
Nonreservation boarding	8,180
Reservation boarding	9,218
Five Civilized Tribes boarding	1,405
Day	6,384
	25,187
Mission schools:	
Contract boarding	1,533
Noncontract—	
Boarding	2,683
Day	405
	3,088
	4,621
Private schools:	
Contract boarding	134
Noncontract boarding	24
	158
Public schools:	
Contract	1,794
Noncontract	15,217
	17,011
Total, all classes	46,977
Number of eligible children not in school	18,962

EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, 1910-1912.

Based upon annual reports of Frank R. White, director of education for the Philippine Islands.

The report of the director of education for the year 1910-11 shows that the annual enrollment reached 610,493, as against 587,317 for the preceding year. The highest monthly enrollment was 484,689, as against 451,938 the previous year.

The average daily attendance for the highest month was 395,537, an increase of 31,489 over that of the same month of the preceding year.

The total number of schools in operation was 4,404, and American and Filipino teachers on duty at the close of the year numbered 9,086, with a total estimated school population for the islands of 1,215,000. The director recommends a limitation of the enrollment and a substantial increase in the percentage of daily attendance. An example is given of one Province with a waiting list of 4,000 pupils desiring to be enrolled, but this Province reported an actual daily attendance of 80 per cent, which was 5 per cent higher than the general average for the islands.

The report of the director for 1911-12 shows that in all lines of school activities the results during the year were very encouraging. A determined effort has been made to improve the quality of English taught in all the schools, whether of primary, intermediate, or secondary grade, and progress in this respect has been marked. Industrial instruction has been organized and developed to a greater extent, perhaps, than in any previous year. A large number of permanent school buildings have been completed. The policy of acquiring adequate school sites has found general acceptance and much attention has been given to the improvement of temporary

buildings. Through its publications, through personal contact, and particularly through the vacation assembly at Baguio, the Philippine Bureau of Education has come into closer sympathy with the vast majority of its teachers than ever before. A decided improvement is to be reported in the personnel of the teaching force, both American and Filipino. A great deal of attention has been given to the improvement of office methods, and as a result the administrative work of the Bureau of Education is now handled with greatly increased efficiency.

There has been some decrease in the total number of pupils enrolled in the public schools, the annual enrollment for the school year 1911-12 being 529,665, as against 610,493 for the school year 1910-11. The average daily attendance for the year 1911-12, however, was 329,073, as against 355,722 for the previous year. The percentage of attendance was 83 per cent, as against 80 per cent for the previous year. It will be seen, therefore, that although the total enrollment was reduced by about 81,000, the average daily attendance suffered a decrease of approximately only 26,000. This increase of 3 per cent in the average daily attendance indicates that more really effective work was done during the past year.

The decrease in enrollment and attendance was anticipated, and is due to a number of causes. In many towns the balances in the municipal treasuries have been exhausted and there are no funds to pay for suitable permanent buildings. Another cause that has operated to decrease the attendance is the increased salaries paid Filipino teachers. This additional expense could be met only by reducing the number of teachers. There is nothing discouraging in the decrease, therefore; the loss is more apparent than real. Until additional funds are placed at the disposition of the bureau, there can be no further expansion of educational work. The hope of continued improvement lies in securing the greatest possible regularity of attendance.

AMERICAN TEACHERS.

Approval was secured for the temporary detail of an agent to be on duty in the United States as representative of the director in the selection of new teachers.

Each of the 118 new teachers who arrived during the months of April, May, and June of this year had been interviewed by this representative, and the selections were made only after careful consideration of the merits of all certified applicants. The following table, indicating the academic preparation and experience of these appointees, is of interest.

Educational attainments and teaching experience of the original appointees to the teaching service of the Philippine Bureau of Education, 1911-12.

Number of men-----	105
Number of women-----	13
<hr/>	
	118
Average age, 24 years, 8 months.	
Number having done graduate work and possessing degree of A. M.-----	7
Number having done graduate work, but who do not possess graduate degrees -----	3
	10
Number of graduates, degrees A., B., B. S., etc-----	56
Number with credit of three years' college work-----	5
Number with credit of two years' college work-----	7
Number with credit of one year's college work-----	10
	78
Number of normal-school graduates-----	23
*Number who were normal-school students, not graduating-----	8
	31
Number with special training, domestic science, technical, etc-----	14
High-school graduates (only)-----	1
	15
Total-----	134
Counted twice-----	16
	118
Net total -----	118

TEACHING EXPERIENCE.

As principal and superintendent-----	2	Experience of—	
As principal-----	8	10 years-----	4
Teacher and principal-----	8	7 years-----	2
High-school teacher-----	13	6 years-----	9
Rural and high-school teacher-----	9	5 years-----	13
Rural and village teacher-----	14	4 years-----	14
Village teacher-----	9	3 years-----	14
Rural teacher-----	24	2 years-----	19
College assistant-----	5	1 year-----	21
Rural and college-----	1	Tutoring-----	3
High school and college-----	2	No experience-----	19
Normal and city teacher-----	1		
Tutoring-----	3	Total-----	118
No experience-----	19		
Total-----	118		

The plan of bringing new teachers from the United States to Baguio for a course of instruction intended to prepare them for immediate and better service in their various assignments is a new departure. The venture was made this year with a class of 16 teachers who reached the islands about the opening of the assembly season. The climate of Baguio, the summer capital, is delightful, and not only do new teachers receive first impressions that are very agreeable in the associations formed during this summer school, but the general health of the new teachers is better because of this gradual climatic change from the Temperate Zone to the Tropical.

Those new teachers who arrived later in the vacation period were given a brief course of lectures in Manila prior to assignment, with a view to acquainting them in some measure with Philippine conditions.

There are 40 men now serving as division superintendents, 27 of whom have been with the department since 1901.

The director mentions the death of Mr. T. W. Thompson, division superintendent of the Province of Pampanga, and gives a brief account of his long and faithful service in the bureau.

FILIPINO TEACHERS.

The total number of Filipino teachers on duty at the close of the school year 1911-12 was 7,699, of whom 1,066 received salary from insular funds, 6,488 from municipal funds, and 145 were apprentices without salary. With few exceptions all primary instruction is now handled by Filipino teachers, and a large proportion of the intermediate classes have also been turned over to them. Increasing numbers are engaged in secondary instruction, and 161 have been assigned to positions as supervising and assistant supervising teachers. From the first it has been the policy of the Philippine Bureau of Education to place upon the Filipino teachers as great responsibilities as they are capable of assuming. The constant increase in the number assigned to the more important work is evidence that this policy has not been without favorable results.

Some mention has already been made of the increase in the salaries of Filipino teachers, and it will be noted that a part of this increase has been at the expense of attendance. Very little more can be done to relieve this situation until more money is placed at the disposition of the Philippine Bureau of Education; otherwise it would be necessary either to curtail school activities further or to reduce again the number of teachers. Neither of these alternatives the Philippine Bureau of Education can properly consider. It is fortunate for the educational work of the islands that young men and women are willing to devote themselves to the profession of teaching at lower rates of compensation than they would receive in private business or in other bureaus of the Government. This does not, however, lessen in any degree the duty of legislators to provide more generously for teachers who are giving their services freely and unselfishly to the cause of education in their native land.

The total number of Filipino teachers shows a decrease of 704 over the report for the preceding year, but an increase of 12 in the number of teachers receiving salary from insular funds. The decrease was due to the dropping of apprentice teachers and the closing of some barrio schools. Raising the standards has also had a tendency

to decrease the number, but has increased the efficiency very materially.

One hundred and forty-eight Filipinos were employed as supervisors and assistant supervisors during the school year 1910-11. The salaries reported for 1910-11 were low. The general average for the islands for municipal teachers was \$9.29, an increase of only 13 cents over the year preceding, while some Provinces reported as low an average as \$5.80, and the much-needed legislation recommended in 1911 does not seem to have been acted upon.

OFFICE ORGANIZATION.

The general office of the Philippine Bureau of Education consists of 5 division chiefs, 16 American stenographers and clerks, 7 Americans detailed to inspection duty in connection with the industrial division, and 79 Filipino stenographers, clerks, and messengers; making a total of 108 for the year 1910-11. On November 21, 1911, the correspondence study department, which was formerly operated in connection with the Philippine Normal School, was made a part of the general office, increasing the general office force to 24 American clerks and stenographers and 113 Filipino clerks and messengers. Much attention has been given to systematizing the work, both in the general and division offices, thus bringing the division offices in the Provinces into much closer harmony with the general office. Many of the old forms were changed and new ones introduced, particularly with respect to the handling of Government property and fixing the status of Filipino municipal teachers.

The volume of business handled by the general office in 1910-11 was double that of the two years previous, and a further increase is reported for this year.

The accounting division shows that \$2,477,216 was made available by 11 different acts of the legislature. There is also a reimbursable property fund of \$250,000 that takes into account all sales of books, supplies, losses paid, etc. The total value of the equipment on hand in Manila and the Provinces amounts to \$1,183,240.

REVISION OF THE COURSES OF STUDY.

The course of study adopted in 1904 had been subjected to many changes to meet altered conditions, especially in industrial education. The necessity for a complete revision was recognized by the bureau, and Circular No. 2s, 1912, gives a list of the committees appointed to revise the different courses. These committees collected information from every part of the islands, and submitted reports that were

partially adopted, except that some changes could not be put into effect immediately because the textbooks for 1912 and 1913 had already been purchased.

The course for primary and intermediate school shops was adopted July 22, 1912. This course is made a part of the other courses. It is compulsory, and before pupils can be promoted from the intermediate grades they must comply with the requirements in shopwork for the intermediate grades. Furthermore, no substitution of time spent in the primary grades can be allowed.

Circular No. 97 outlines the courses in detail, and also gives the number of shops as 236, with an attendance of 10,356 pupils and only 203 shop teachers. The value of the articles made amounted to \$10,265.31. This does not include the value of articles made by the students out of school hours. Conditions that make for efficiency in shopwork are named as follows: "A trained shop teacher; an adequate supply of tools; a sufficient supply of materials; a sufficient number of pupils; proper housing of shop; ample bench accommodation for each pupil; the choice and execution of a definite course; the continued use in the shop of the English related to shopwork; and the proper keeping of records." The adoption of this revised course has had a beneficial effect upon the work, as municipalities had to provide shops and equipment for this required work or the regular course would be of no value to them. The financial condition of some Provinces makes it difficult to conform to this part of the revised course of study, and very little insular aid is given for manual training or shops.

No change has been made in the hours or sessions, but the two-sessions-a-day plan is recommended.

Special courses are to be given along six different lines as follows: General course; course for teaching; course in farming; trade course; courses in housekeeping and household arts; and the course for business. Each intermediate school must select one or more of the special courses.

Of the total annual enrollment of 610,493 pupils, 582,115 are in the primary classes (first four grades), 24,947 in intermediate classes, and 3,404 in secondary courses. The average pupil goes no higher than the primary course. For like reasons special courses are introduced into the fifth grade, and the elementary course is made as rich as possible in its provision for practical instruction. Only 1 in every 200 pupils enrolled in the public schools of the Philippine Islands passes beyond the intermediate grades.

For the present school year no material changes have been made in the course of study, nor are any further changes contemplated at this time.

The new revised high-school course will stand as follows: First year—algebra, English, composition, general history; second year—plane geometry, English, physical geography, government, general history, United States history; third year—review arithmetic, English, biology (double period), Colonial history, commercial geography; fourth year—advanced algebra (optional), solid geometry (optional), Latin (optional), literature, composition and rhetoric, business English, physics (double period), and economic conditions of the Philippines.

THE PHILIPPINES AND OTHER TROPICAL COUNTRIES.

During the past year the director of education of the Philippines has been in correspondence with the school authorities of a number of other countries, particularly those located in the Tropics and enjoying practically the same conditions as obtain in these islands. Letters requesting information on 13 topics were sent out to about 70 countries, from nearly two-thirds of which replies have been received. A careful review of the correspondence shows that it is the aim of nearly every one of these countries to make education general, but as a rule the percentage of population attending school is much lower than in the Philippines. In very few cases is special attention given to industrial education. The elementary schools are seldom considered in the plan of industrial instruction, the attention generally being confined to advanced technical and agricultural subjects. Much more stress is laid upon athletics and physical training in the Philippines than is given in other countries generally. The interest that the Filipino people take in public instruction is much greater than is apparently the case elsewhere. Reports seem to indicate that in a number of the countries at least not only a lack of interest but actual opposition is manifested.

BUILDINGS AND SITES.

Under acts 1801 and 2029 of the Philippine Legislature, each of which provided the sum of \$500,000 for the aid of municipalities in constructing permanent school buildings, 135 buildings have been completed, of which number 83 are built in accordance with the standard plans of the Bureau of Education, and 173 other buildings are in process of construction, of which 81 lack only very little of completion and are already occupied. Funds provided by act No. 1801 have been exhausted; \$432,880 remains unallotted under act No. 2029, of which sum \$57,880 is already available. The remainder will be available at the rate of \$125,000 yearly. Acts Nos. 1954 and 1988, each of which also appropriated the sum of \$50,000 for municipal school buildings, have been used to supplement the two acts just

mentioned in provincial capitals and important centers where larger buildings are needed.

For the past year a campaign has been carried on for the acquisition of adequate school sites to provide sufficient room for the buildings to be erected, for the future development of the school plant, for school gardening, and for suitable playgrounds. As a result of this campaign, the bureau now has in its possession 137 school sites which contain 10,000 square meters or more each, and 332 school sites containing at least 5,000 square meters each. It is to be regretted that activity in securing these sites has been limited to a very few Provinces. What has been accomplished in these instances indicates very clearly what the result will be when every Province enters upon an active campaign for this purpose.

For a number of years the Philippine Bureau of Education has been committed to the policy of providing adequate permanent buildings for the housing of the public schools as rapidly as money might be made available. This policy will be pushed during the coming year, and there is every reason to believe that a much greater advance will be reported than heretofore. Too often improvements have been made on school grounds without permanent plans, as a consequence of which much of the work has had to be undone within a few months or years. Emphasis will continue to be placed upon the adoption of permanent plans for the improvement of school grounds, and cleanliness of premises will be insisted upon. In all large schools regular inspection of buildings and grounds is required.

The difficulty of securing good school sites is much greater in some Provinces than in others. The school authorities are not allowed to use the right of "eminent domain" to secure school sites. The Filipino people are, however, taking a greater interest now in securing satisfactory sites of good size. When they more fully understand the use of the grounds for school gardens, athletics, and other school exercises the present difficulties will not obtain.

INDUSTRIAL INSTRUCTION.

The industrial program is being promoted constantly through the medium of provincial industrial supervisors; inspectors and instructors from the traveling corps of the general office; various publications, bulletins, and correspondence; through industrial exhibits; through the appointment of pensionados to receive training along such lines; and by means of the special courses offered in the Philippine Normal School and the Philippine School of Arts and Trades.

Such satisfactory progress is to be reported as to convince the director that the methods employed are substantially correct. On entering the school, the pupil must immediately take up as a part of

each day's work certain manual exercises in the nature of play work, which gradually lead up to the regular industrial courses provided in the advanced primary and in the intermediate grades. Special courses in farming, housekeeping and household arts, trade work, and business are offered for those pupils who desire to do more industrial work than that prescribed in the general intermediate course. These special industrial courses are replacing the general course in many intermediate schools. Already 41 schools are giving the farming course, 54 are giving the housekeeping course, 35 are giving the trade course, 42 the teaching course, and 1 the business course, as compared with a total of 199 conducting the general course.

Of the total enrollment of 235,740 boys and 138,842 girls during the month of February, 1912 (an average month), 216,290 boys and 125,203 girls—91 per cent of the entire monthly enrollment—were doing some form of industrial work; 13,210 boys were taking manual training and trade work; 96,167 boys were engaged in school gardening and farming; 15,485 girls were also engaged in garden work; and 163,450 boys and 68,194 girls were taking up various lines which go under the general caption of minor industries. The course in housekeeping and household arts was followed by 79,382 girls. In lace-making alone 16,439 girls were receiving instruction; in embroidery, 12,339; and in cooking, 4,768. There were 22,965 boys and 7,709 girls making hats in the industrial classes, 40,264 pupils making mats, and 104,424 studying the art of basketry.

From another point of view, 63,067 pupils who were engaged in school gardening cultivated 3,046 school gardens and 24,682 home gardens during the year; 1,319 pupils were enrolled in the regular trade-school classes; 1,263 in regular trade courses in other schools; and 7,360 in the shops operated in connection with provincial and other intermediate schools. In addition to the above, 10,356 pupils were taking work in 236 primary woodworking shops conducted in connection with municipal primary schools in all parts of the islands. The purpose of the industrial instruction is, of course, primarily to give the pupil a certain training in mind and character and to enable him to acquire a measure of skill in manual exercises. There are, however, certain tangible results and the following specific instances are noted as illustrating what has been accomplished:

School boys in a hundred towns of the Philippines are wearing hats made by themselves. The hat exports from the Philippine Islands increased from 621,475 in the fiscal year 1910 to 1,025,596 in the fiscal year 1911. What proportion of this increase is due to school influence can not be definitely stated, but the schools have had much to do with it, and the result is going to be far greater in the future.

Igorot girls weave the cloth and make the clothing which they wear in school.

More than half of the desks and tables in the primary schools of the Philippines have been made by the pupils.

The primary schools of Albay are able to deliver 1,000 salable baskets on a month's notice.

The industrial school at Capiz has introduced and developed the slipper-making industry in that community. Slippers to the estimated value of \$2,000 were sold during the year.

Through school influence, 1,072 gardens were established during the past year at the homes of people in Union Province.

In November, 1910, an inspection of Albay Province developed the fact that many vegetables and fruits, capable of easy production in that district, were very scarce or entirely unknown. After the date of the inspection, 470 school and home gardens were developed in the Province, with pronounced effect upon the food supply of the people.

In the non-Christian Province of Bukidnon every school has 4 hectares of land inclosed and under cultivation. Its school farms are models of cleanliness and order, producing an abundance of rice, camotes, and other substantial foods, with which the people were meagerly supplied before these schools were established.

The school farm at Batac, Ilocos Norte, sent to Manila, and had on exhibition throughout the week of the 1911 carnival, a crop of vegetables superior in size and quality to anything ever appearing in the Manila markets.

The provincial school of Pampanga exhibited at the last carnival more than 600 samples of jellies, jams, and preserves made from Philippine fruits, as illustrative of practical school work in developing a new industry and new articles of diet for the Filipino home.

These cases will serve to illustrate the sort of thing that is accomplished in the industrial classes of the public schools; but, as elsewhere indicated, the highest results of industrial instruction are those which have to do with the molding of the character and life purposes of the children.

SCHOOL OF HOUSEHOLD INDUSTRIES.

The Philippine Legislature by act No. 2110 appropriated the sum of \$50,000 for the establishment and maintenance of a school of household industries in the city of Manila. The purpose of this school is to train adult women in certain selected home industries. In five or six months of daily work in embroidery and lace making the persons attending this school can become very proficient. They will then return to their homes, or to other towns agreed upon between themselves and the director of education, where each woman will be expected to establish a local class for instruction in her specialty. It is desired that she gather about her a group of industrious women and girls whom she will instruct along the lines of her training in the school of household industries. When they shall have become proficient she will employ them at fair wages. Doubtless many of the women who receive instruction in local classes will be ambitious to form similar organizations on their own account, and

in this way it is expected that an ever-widening circle of industrial activity will result. Through the medium of either the Bureau of Education or the sales agency it is intended that the Government shall keep in touch with these industrial centers and communicate to them up-to-date information relative to patterns and standards demanded by the foreign market.

No promise is exacted from these women to teach, as in the case of the students and teachers who are sent at Government expense to Manila. The Philippine Bureau of Education purposes to keep in close touch with all graduates from this school and at all times will be glad to render them any assistance possible, other than financial. One of the objects of the school is to establish a new standard of excellence for Philippine lace and embroidery, and also to give employment to women who may work under the direction of skilled teachers. It is believed that by an economical subdivision of labor a great advantage will be obtained in the quantity of work produced. One Filipino woman has established such an industrial center in Manila and has under her direction about 800 workers. The extent of her work may be inferred from the fact that one order for 2,400 shirt waists was received. This woman now has subcontractors in many of the different towns, and thus the work is growing rapidly.

The demand for all work of this kind from the Philippines has developed at a rapid pace during the past year, and many orders can not be filled. The physical and mental adaptability of the Filipino woman to work of this sort is universally recognized, hence Filipino embroideries and fine lace may in a few years have as great a commercial demand and artistic value as the best hand products of the skilled workers of the Orient and of the leading countries of Europe.

VARIOUS INSULAR SCHOOLS.

The new normal school building has been completed at an expense of \$187,500 and contains ample room for present needs. Plans are under consideration, however, for new buildings devoted to some special lines of industrial work and also for girls' dormitories. The annual enrollment reached 928.

The Philippine School of Arts and Trades, under the direction of W. W. Marquardt, has given an excellent account of itself. Money has been appropriated for a much-needed new building, but the amount is not considered sufficient for the floor space required. The large and commodious building used by the Bureau of Education for the carnival exhibit, February, 1912, was entirely the work of the trade school.

The requirements for admission of the Philippine School of Commerce have been raised to the completion of sixth grade. The enroll-

ment reached 362, as against 391 for the year 1911-12. This shows a comparative increase in attendance in view of the higher standard for admission. So great is the demand for students of this important school by Government bureaus and business houses that there is no difficulty in placing all students who have done satisfactory work. The result is that very few remain in attendance to complete the four years' course. The class in stenography enrolled 57 in June, 1912.

The attendance of the school for the deaf and blind during the past year has been 40 pupils, gathered from 9 Provinces.

Substantial progress is reported from all non-Christian divisions. The best results have been secured in developing strong schools at provincial capitals and other large centers, rather than increasing the number of small schools in the outlying districts. In the sub-province of Bukidnon greater results in minor agriculture have been accomplished than in any other district in the islands.

ATHLETICS.

The *Athletic Handbook* for the Philippine public schools outlines the plan of the bureau under two general heads—general school games and organized athletics. Athletics for every pupil are first discussed, then the schedule for group games, impromptu schoolyard games, athletic badge competition, and simple apparatus for school playgrounds. Under the second heading are discussed: History of school athletics in the Philippines, general system of organization, athletics within divisions, interprovincial organizations, finances, general rules governing meets, playing rules for (*a*) baseball, (*b*) basket ball, (*c*) volley ball, (*d*) indoor baseball, (*e*) track and field, and (*f*) lawn tennis, hints on training, Philippine interscholastic records, trophies, athletic courtesy. The Filipino boys and girls enjoy most of our school games, but some have to be modified more or less to conform to climatic conditions. Baseball, volley ball, tennis, and basket ball are played with a spirit of enthusiasm equal to that in the United States.

The athletic badge competition gives a red button or badge to each schoolboy under the age of 13 years who is able to make all of the following records: Sixty-yard dash in 9 seconds; pull up (chinning the bar) four times; standing broad jump, 5 feet 9 inches.

A white emblem is given to any schoolboy under 18 years of age who can do the following: 100-yard dash in 14 seconds; pull up (chinning the bar) eight times; standing broad jump, 7 feet 6 inches.

A blue trophy is awarded to any schoolboy who can accomplish all of the following feats: 220-yard dash in 28 seconds; pulling up (chinning bar) 12 times; running high jump, 4 feet 6 inches.

The rules of the A. A. U. govern in all contests.

The following athletic associations have been organized: The Southern Luzon Athletic Association, the Central Luzon, Visayan Interscholastic, Ilocano Interscholastic, and the Southern Tagalog.

The Bureau of Education has adopted, along with its own rules, the tests and athletic rules which are required by the Philippine Amateur Athletic Federation, of which the Governor General is the president, and it is affiliated with this association according to the articles of alliance published in the handbook. A certificate is required from each amateur, as follows:

If I commit any of the following acts, I become a professional athlete and ineligible to compete further as an amateur:

1. Enter a competition for money.
2. Accept a prize for money.
3. Sell or pawn prizes.
4. Enter a competition under a false name.
5. Issue or accept a challenge for money or its equivalent.
6. Receive reward for becoming or continuing to be a member of an athletic organization.
7. Accept a free membership or remission of dues in any club.
8. Teach, train, or coach in any athletic sport for money or any valuable consideration.

No student can represent a school unless he has been a regular attendant at this school for at least four school months immediately preceding the meet, and only those students who are taking full work in a regular course are allowed to represent a school. No person who is a graduate of a four-year secondary course is eligible to compete in athletic meets. Approved private educational institutions may be represented at interprovincial athletic meets only upon the written invitation of the director of education.

The chapter on athletic courtesy states that visiting teams are to be honored guests of the home team, and all their mutual relations are to be governed by the spirit which is understood to guide such dealings. Ungentlemanly or unfair means are not to be practiced, even when they are used by opponents, and the admonition given is, "Cheer when you win; cheer when you lose." The fact that a Filipino baseball team met and defeated the strong team from Wasada University, Japan, shows the results of careful training and good coaching.

LEGISLATION ENACTED, 1910-11.

Act No. 2002 makes available \$500 for purchase of additional land for Baguio Industrial School.

Act No. 2018 authorizes municipal councils to appropriate funds for payment of traveling expenses of municipal teachers attending vacation institutes.

Act No. 2029 appropriates \$500,000 for construction of barrio school buildings, one-fourth to be made available annually, beginning January 1, 1912. (This act is a continuation of the "Gabaldon law," act 1801, allowing to each barrio a

sum equal to double the amount appropriated locally for schoolhouse construction, provided, however, that not over \$2,500 from this fund can be used on a single project.)

Act No. 2048 appropriates \$25,000 for teacher scholarships in insular schools.

Act No. 2049 appropriates \$15,000 for student scholarships in the Philippine Manual Training School and Philippine School of Arts and Trades.

Act No. 2059 appropriates \$258,000 for the construction of insular school buildings in the city of Manila.

Act No. 2061 appropriates \$30,000 for the establishment of a sales agency. (This agency is to handle all the industrial products of the public schools.)

No new appropriation bill was passed for the fiscal year 1912. The former bill (act No. 1989) by executive action was declared to be in force. This made the amount available for the current expenses of the bureau for the year \$1,855,000.

LEGISLATION, 1911-12.

Act No. 2069 appropriates \$167,850 for support of schools in non-Christian Provinces for the year 1912.

Act No. 2070 appropriates \$23,000 for construction of school buildings in non-Christian Provinces.

Act No. 2110 appropriates \$50,000 for the establishment in the city of Manila of a school of household industries and provides for 300 scholarships therein.

Act No. 2134 provides for appointment of 100 pension students for the Philippine Normal School of Arts and Trades. Appropriates sum of \$15,000 therefor.

Act No. 2146 provides from current funds for scholarships in the University of the Philippines or any other Government institution in the city of Manila.

Act No. 2182 appropriates \$10,000 for construction of girls' dormitory for Filipino teachers at the teachers' camp, Baguio.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

School year 1911-12.

1 university:	200 municipal manual training shops.
College of liberal arts.	38 high schools.
College of medicine and surgery.	283 intermediate schools.
College of agriculture, with a school of forestry.	3,364 primary schools.
College of engineering.	3,685 total number of schools.
College of fine arts, with a course in pharmacy.	3,599 secondary students. ¹
College of veterinary science.	24,458 intermediate school pupils. ¹
College of law.	367,018 primary school pupils. ¹
1 normal school.	1 director of education.
1 insular trade school.	2 assistant directors.
1 school of commerce.	40 division superintendents.
1 school for deaf and blind.	444 supervising teachers.
35 provincial trade and manual training schools.	664 American teachers.
	7,699 Filipino teachers.

\$3,176,617.04, expenditure for schools during fiscal year 1911-12; insular, provincial, and municipal, exclusive of special building appropriations.

¹ Average monthly enrollment for the year.

\$2,121,500.00, appropriation from insular sources for secondary, intermediate, and primary buildings, and for trade and other special school buildings, since December 6, 1904.

Over 350,000 school pupils engaged in some kind of industrial work.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE PHILIPPINE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

Bulletins: 37-38, School Buildings and Grounds; 40, Athletic Handbook for the Philippine Schools; 41, The Service Manual; 42, Intermediate English II (for use in the correspondence course); 43, Catalogue of the Philippine School of Arts and Trades; 44, Libraries for Philippine Public Schools. The Service Manual gives in compact form all the rules and regulations governing the service and is of immense benefit to teachers just entering the service.

Other publications of the bureau include the Eleventh Annual Report of the Director of Education; No. 7 of the series of Civico-Educational Lectures on Cocoanuts; and Volume V of the Teacher's Assembly Herald. Four textbooks have also been issued by the bureau: Commercial Geography; Introduction to the Study of Colonial History; Selected Short Poems by Representative American Authors; and a book containing Macaulay's Samuel Johnson, Emerson's Self-Reliance, and Lincoln's Gettysburg Address.

The most important publication of the bureau in many respects is the *Philippine Craftsman*. This magazine is published monthly for the nine months of the year, and is devoted entirely to the advancement of industrial instruction in the public schools of the islands.¹

HAWAII.

The school year 1911-12 marks a new period in the history of education in the Territory of Hawaii. By an act of the legislature approved April 13, 1911, a new method of financing the schools was adopted. Under this act the Territorial department of public instruction is authorized and directed to prepare a salary schedule to cover the compensation of all teachers, supervisors, and principals, such schedule to be based upon a classification of schools, teachers' certificates, and length of service. The salaries of supervisors and principals must be based also on the number of teachers under their direction. Such schedule, when approved by the governor, has the effect of law, and may from time to time be altered, amended, or revised. The law provides that the total number of teachers, including supervisors and principals, who may be continuously employed in any one year shall not exceed 1 for every 35 pupils enrolled in the public schools during the preceding year, and that the monthly pay roll of teachers, supervisors, and principals shall not exceed \$45,000 per month, plus \$50 additional for every 35 children of school age added to the enrollment of the public schools after June 30, 1911.

¹ This periodical may be obtained from the Bureau of Education at Manila.

In addition to the salary schedule the Territorial department of public instruction is required to prepare biennially a school budget showing the estimated expenses, other than salaries of teachers, supervisors, and principals, of the public schools of the Territory and of such department, under two heads. Under the head of "general fund" are included the salary of the superintendent, salaries of office force, general expenses, supplies, libraries and books, industrial and manual training, and maintenance of special schools. Under the head of "special fund" are included new buildings (school-houses, cottages, and outbuildings), repairs and maintenance of buildings and grounds, new grounds, janitor service, furniture and fixtures. The budget must be submitted to a committee of estimate consisting of the secretary of the Territory, the superintendent of public instruction, the mayor of the city and county of Honolulu, and the chairmen of the boards of supervisors of the several counties, which committee may revise or change any item appearing under the heading "special fund," but shall not change any item under the heading "general fund." The budget is then submitted by the governor to the legislature, and when acted upon by the legislature such budget shall determine the amounts which may be expended for the several purposes during the succeeding biennial period.

The administration of the public schools is almost entirely centralized in the department of public instruction, which consists of the superintendent and 6 commissioners appointed from the 4 counties by the governor with the consent of the senate. The only function connected with the public schools exercised by the local or county governments is the maintenance of school buildings and grounds.

The course of study in the high schools extends through four years, as does that of the normal school. During the school year 1911-12 a summer school was held at the normal school for a period of 6 weeks, with an attendance of 112. Of this number 83 took work required for the primary-grade teacher's certificate, and 29 for the grammar-grade certificate.

Attendance at either a public or a private school is obligatory for all children from 6 to 17 years of age.

In 1912 the public-school system comprised the Territorial normal school at Honolulu; 2 high schools, 1 at Honolulu and 1 at Hilo; 3 industrial schools, 2 of which are for boys and girls, respectively, committed to them by the juvenile courts; and 151 schools of primary and grammar grades. The total enrollment in public schools was 23,752, of which number 12,965 are boys and 10,787 girls. This was an increase of 3,155, or more than 15 per cent, over the preceding year, while the average attendance was about 86 per cent of the enrollment. Of the total enrollment, 146 pupils were in the normal

school, 249 in high schools, 305 in the eighth grade, 434 in the seventh grade, 803 in the sixth grade, 1,649 in the fifth grade, 2,841 in the fourth grade, 3,325 in the third grade, 4,170 in the second grade, and 9,803 in the first grade. Excluding the normal school, it is found that 41½ per cent of all public-school pupils were enrolled in the first grade.

There was expended for public schools during the year the sum of \$722,912.57, of which \$92,577.92 was for new buildings. The total cost per pupil was \$30.43.

In addition to the public schools there are 51 private schools in the Territory, ranging from kindergartens to colleges, with an enrollment of 6,157 pupils—3,270 boys and 2,887 girls. These institutions are required to obtain permits from the department of public instruction.

The cosmopolitan character of the schools in Hawaii is indicated in the following classification of teachers and pupils by nationalities:

Teachers and pupils in Hawaiian schools.

Nationality.	Teachers.			Pupils.		
	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.
Hawaiian.....	68	15	83	3,453	800	4,253
Part Hawaiian.....	163	20	183	2,765	1,310	4,075
American.....	222	204	426	459	710	1,169
British.....	37	10	47	85	52	137
German.....	6	9	15	179	129	308
Portuguese.....	47	10	57	4,214	1,117	5,331
Japanese.....	3	9	12	8,368	930	9,298
Chinese.....	23	7	30	2,471	801	3,272
Porto Rican.....				510	68	578
Korean.....		3	3	274	119	393
Others.....	13	13	26	974	121	1,095
Total.....	582	300	882	23,752	6,157	29,909

The Japanese pupils have increased from 1,352 in 1900 to 9,298 in 1912 and now form more than 31 per cent of the school enrollment in Hawaii, while in 1900 they formed less than 9 per cent of the entire enrollment.

PORTO RICO.

[From the report for the year ended June 30, 1912, of Edwin G. Dexter, Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico.]

At the close of the year ended June 30, 1912, Dr. E. G. Dexter was succeeded as commissioner of education for Porto Rico by Mr. Edward M. Bainter, of Kansas City, Mo. In his report for the year Dr. Dexter summarizes briefly the progress in education made in Porto Rico during his term of five years. The report shows that

during that time the total enrollment in the public schools increased from 71,696 to 160,657, or 124 per cent; average daily attendance increased from 44,218 to 114,834, or 160 per cent; the enrollment in secondary schools increased from 182 to 1,547, or 750 per cent; the expenditure for public schools increased from \$908,794 to \$1,366,810, while the per capita cost per pupil in attendance decreased from \$12.67 to \$8.51. During his term instruction in manual training and in agriculture was introduced in the public schools, public-school playgrounds were established in 61 municipalities, and libraries were established in 225 schools.

COMMON SCHOOLS.

The common-school system consists of the rural and graded schools. The graded schools show an increase of 84 over the number in the preceding year, and the rural schools an increase of 185. The total number of common-school teachers was 1,781, as compared with 1,671 for the preceding year. The enrollment in these schools was 141,424. As compared with the previous year, the enrollment shows an increase of 5,636, or 12 per cent, in graded schools, and 7,335, or 9 per cent, in the rural schools.

Of the 44,912 pupils enrolled in the graded schools on March 1, 1912, there were 14,327 in the first grade, 9,228 in the second grade, 6,682 in the third, 4,703 in the fourth, 3,669 in the fifth, 2,679 in the sixth, 1,888 in the seventh, and 1,706 in the eighth.

The rural-school course covers a period of six years and articulates with the graded-school system at the beginning of the fifth grade. On March 1, 1912, there were enrolled in the rural schools 78,796 pupils, of which number 47,855, or 61 per cent, were in the first grade. Only 71 of the total number were enrolled in the sixth grade.

Considerable attention has been given to the matter of retardation of pupils. The percentage of promotion from grade to grade has not been satisfactory. An attempt to better conditions has been made by the introduction of the plan known as "flexible promotions." After a trial of over two years, the consensus of opinion on the part of supervising principals is in favor of the plan as a practical solution of the problem.

The plan pursued is in brief as follows:

(1) The course of study was divided into six groups of six weeks each for both rural and graded schools. This gave a short portion to be covered at a time, the exact amount being indicated by pages of textbooks and by detailed instructions to the teachers.

(2) The pupils of each grade were rearranged so that in each of the two groups in a given room were found only those of practically the same degree of advancement. This regrouping was at first only tentative, but in the course of time has become fairly stable. Each group was allowed to advance at the

rate at which it could do the work well. Thus the groups gradually drew apart, the stronger covering the work outlined in a given six weeks' period in less time, the slower requiring more, but all working at their best. It was not intended that the interval between them should be or remain uniform, although this has in many cases resulted.

(3) At the end of each six weeks those who had shown marked ability, usually only a few at a time, were advanced to the next higher group, while those who could not keep the pace set by the rest of the class were demoted to the next lower, reviewing the work in which they were weak. As far as possible the pupils did not change teacher or rooms, as it was recognized that such changes would not prove to be for the best interest of young children. Not more than two groups were allowed in a room. In this way a constant regrading was carried on during the year, the aim being always to place pupils in the group where they could do the best work, all at the same rate.

The plan has not been found feasible above the fourth grade, except in a few of the larger towns, owing to the fact that as a rule the higher grades have not enough students to form more than one group. But it is in the lower grades where the greatest retardation has occurred in the past and where the largest number of pupils are found who are behind the normal advancement.

The use of the English language as the medium of instruction is making rapid progress. In 1912 all instruction was given in English in 98.4 per cent of the graded schools, and in 1.6 per cent of such schools the instruction was partly in English. There are now no graded schools in Porto Rico in which English is not used.

In the rural schools the conditions are not yet so satisfactory, although considerable progress is being made. In 1908-9 there were no rural schools in which instruction was given wholly in English. Now instruction is given wholly in English in 188 rural schools, or 17 per cent of the total number; in 22 per cent of the schools instruction is partly in English; in 60.5 per cent English is taught as a special subject; and in only 6 schools is there no instruction in English.

The commissioner states that without a doubt the teaching of English is far more effective in the lower grades by the Porto Rican teachers authorized to teach in that language than by American teachers. They give better results in the higher grades and it is the intention to gradually increase the number of Porto Rican teachers in charge of the upper grades, as greater efficiency in the use of the English language is acquired.

HIGH SCHOOLS.

The number of high schools with four-year courses has been increased to four by the establishment of the school at Arecibo, which is located in a building that has been remodeled for high-school purposes and is the only high school in Porto Rico adequately housed. The enrollment in high schools was as follows: Arecibo, 70; Mayaguez, 175; Ponce, 360; San Juan, 301. The requirements for gradu-

tion from the high school are uniform, as is the course of study. To graduate from the four-year course, a student must have attained 16 units of credit, of which 4 must be in the English language, 2 in either Spanish, Latin, or French, 2 in history, and 1 in science. The remaining 7 units may be chosen, under the direction of the principal, from the various elective subjects offered.

AGRICULTURAL INSTRUCTION.

Following the general plan of last year, special teachers of agriculture were assigned to a limited number of towns and were charged with giving theoretical and practical instruction to the pupils of both the graded and rural schools. The budget for the past year made provision for 10 special teachers of agriculture, at a salary of \$60 a month for the calendar year, but owing to a lack of trained men available for this work only seven appointments were made. These seven were assigned to the districts of Carolina, Juana Diaz, Bayamon, Utuado, San German, Toa Alta, and Anasco.

They devoted their entire time to the teaching of agriculture to the pupils of both graded and rural schools, holding conferences and classes for teachers, conducting public meetings for the farmers, and in general to arousing and maintaining interest in the agricultural movement throughout their respective school districts. Many of the distant rural schools, accessible only on horseback over long and wearisome trails, could be visited but once a month, though in such cases the teachers in charge looked after the agricultural work, receiving explicit instructions from the special teacher. As a rule, both boys and girls took the course, and emphasis was laid on the practical as well as on the theoretical side of the subject. In the seven districts where this instruction was given a total of 8,723 pupils are reported as having taken this course, as compared with 1,663 during the year previous. The course has been offered in all grades of both graded and rural schools, but in the lower ones the most mature pupils were selected to do whatever manual work was necessary. In the graded schools the practical work in agriculture has been done on land contiguous to the school building, in most cases it being the property of the local school board. In the rented rural schools land has been donated or loaned by public-spirited people for the agricultural work.

Nature study is a required subject in the first four grades of both rural and graded schools, and in those districts where no special teachers of agriculture were found practical work connected with school gardening was carried on as a part of the nature-study course. In those in which special teachers of agriculture were located the courses in nature study and in elementary agriculture have been very closely correlated. A course in agriculture has been worked out by

the different teachers in this subject for their respective districts, and it is recommended that a uniform course be promulgated as soon as possible.

The following table shows the average number of minutes per week given to theoretical and practical work in the seven districts mentioned above:

Grades.	Theo- retical work.	Practical work.	Grades.	Theo- retical work.	Practical work.
	Minutes.	Minutes.		Minutes.	Minutes.
Grade 1.....	38	62	Grade 5.....	60	73
Grade 2.....	38	59	Grade 6.....	60	53
Grade 3.....	56	68	Grade 7.....	63	55
Grade 4.....	57	69	Grade 8.....	68	64

The need of more industrial instruction, especially in agriculture, which is and will remain the fundamental industry of the island, has long been recognized.

During the past school year special efforts have been made to introduce elementary agriculture efficiently into the common schools. A recent ruling of the Commissioner of Education of the United States made it possible to utilize, to a reasonable extent, the Federal appropriations known as the Morrill and Nelson funds for instructing teachers in agriculture and for the teaching of agriculture.

The Commissioner of Education of the United States and the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico in consultation at Washington decided that it was highly desirable to hold a series of one-week institutes throughout the island for the purpose of giving instruction in agriculture to the teachers in rural and graded schools. The plan contemplated closing the schools for one week in a given district, assembling the teachers at a convenient central point, and requiring their attendance at the exercises of the institute. This was put into effect, and 35 institutes were held in different sections of the island.

The selection and organization of the institute faculty, as well as the planning of the work, subject, content, and equipment, was placed in the hands of Dean F. L. Stevens, recently elected to organize the college of agriculture at Mayaguez. The institute faculty selected by Dean Stevens was as follows: R. I. Smith, E. A. Cockefair, Mrs. A. C. Stevens, Miss M. E. Umberger, A. D. Cromwell, D. T. Griswold, and S. K. White, all of whom arrived in Porto Rico in January, 1912. Work was begun immediately on the development of the scheme already worked out in its main features by Dean Stevens, and was essentially as follows:

1. Each week's work to consist of 20 exercises, each exercise to present the subject matter, with method of instruction, for approximately one week's work in agriculture in the common schools.

2. Several periods to be given to practice classes with the various grades.
3. Evening illustrated lectures and moving-picture exhibits on agriculture to be given.
4. During the following year 20 lessons to be presented and the 20 lessons of the first year revised.
5. During the second year a weekly bulletin to be sent to each teacher. This bulletin to present lesson plans for the agricultural lessons of the week following and to aid in stimulating interest in all phases of this work, including school fairs, school collections, etc.
6. During the second year a large personal correspondence with the teachers regarding the teaching of agriculture to be conducted by the college faculty.
7. A prize in the form of a one-week scholarship at the college of agriculture in a special course, all expenses paid, to be awarded to the pupils in each school district doing the best work in agriculture.

The faculty immediately began to get together the equipment, charts, microscopes, specimens, lantern slides, etc., and to prepare the syllabi of the lessons to distribute to the teachers.

In the selection of subject matter special stress was laid upon fundamental knowledge, teachability, and applicability of the knowledge in Porto Rico. It was, of course, impossible properly to develop and use school gardens in the work of the first year, but their utility was constantly emphasized and advantage was taken of the many excellent school gardens that already existed in the island.

The paucity of birds in Porto Rico, and their evident need here, lead also to special emphasis on the relation of birds to agriculture.

In the agricultural instruction the proper value and full dignity of labor were emphasized, and pupils and parents are gradually coming to an appreciation of the work and to a realization that it is not ungentlemanly to soil the hands in manual labor.

In many of the districts public agricultural exhibits were held with excellent results, and at the annual insular fair collections of fruits and vegetables raised in the school gardens of the island were on exhibition.

The result of agricultural instruction has shown itself not only in the beautification of the school surroundings, but also in the homes of many of the children, where the pupils are raising not only flowers, but fruits and vegetables on their own account.

The work is progressing as satisfactorily as can be expected, and with the teaching force receiving instruction during the year and at the summer institutes the time is not far distant when agriculture should be placed in the course of study for all the rural and graded schools of the island.

INDUSTRIAL WORK FOR BOYS.

It is the desire of the department of education to awaken in the heart of every boy a knowledge of the dignity of manual labor. In Porto Rico there are splendid opportunities for skilled artisans and

workers in wood, iron, and other material. The boys, generally speaking, are artistic, and great credit is due them for the work undertaken in the classes. At the second insular fair a considerable variety of articles made by pupils in the manual training classes was exhibited. Instruction in woodworking was given during the year in 16 districts to 758 boys, an increase of 258 over the number for the preceding year.

SEWING.

Instruction in sewing was given in 54 towns to more than 5,000 girls. The classes were taught as a rule after school hours and on Saturdays and wherever possible by teachers in the common schools who had special aptitude for the work.

COOKING.

In 1911 instruction in cooking was offered in but 4 towns, with a total of 159 girls enrolled. During the year 1911-12 this was extended to 9 other municipalities, making a total of 13 towns, and the number of girls taking such instruction increased to 361. The girls have been taught to make practical menus, estimating the cost of meals. A course in cooking for use in the public schools was prepared by a former professor of domestic science in the University of Porto Rico. The course followed covers carbohydrates, preparation of food value; proteins, foods which supply protein and preparation of the same; fats, use as food and in cooking; foods, kinds and value; batters, kinds and value; beverages, study of coffee, cocoa, tea, and their uses; meats, kinds, value, composition, and preparation; simple desserts.

Great interest is shown in these classes by both pupils and parents. Girls who have never done any manual work in their homes are anxious to show what they have learned at school, and in many instances parents have bought ovens, so that the children can make things which they were taught in the cooking classes.

MUSICAL INSTRUCTION.

School bands were maintained in 36 municipalities, an increase of 7 over the number for the preceding year. The bands were composed of 1,479 boys, who received instruction under the direction of competent teachers. The funds available for these bands amounted to \$16,633.12, of which amount \$11,661.86 was provided by the school boards, \$1,032 by the municipal councils, and \$3,939.26 by subscriptions. There was expended for salaries of instructors, \$9,044; instruments, \$5,758.71; material, \$718.41; rent, \$162; leaving a balance of \$950. An average of 12 hours per week was devoted to musical instruction given outside of school hours.

NIGHT SCHOOLS.

During the year there were maintained 149 urban and 209 rural night schools. In the former the enrollment was 8,594, with an average daily attendance of 3,566; in the latter the enrollment was 8,254, with an average daily attendance of 4,273. The school census of March 1, 1912, shows that of the pupils in night schools 39.7 per cent were over 18 years of age.

TEACHERS' CONFERENCES.

During the school year a total of 185 conferences have been held in the school districts of the island, with an average attendance of 136 teachers. The average number of conferences per district was 4.5, and the average number of teachers in attendance at each was 33.1. These general conferences have been conducted, on the whole, with a definite aim in mind, and the programs have been so arranged as to allow ample time for informal discussions on the different subjects submitted. Some of the supervising principals planned the conference work at the beginning of the year and had conferences which concerned especially the different classes of teachers: Rural, primary, grammar, and high school, although one or two general topics were included at each conference which were applicable to all grades of schools. In this way definite conclusions were more easily obtained. Not infrequently a social gathering for the teachers, supervisors, and members of the school boards followed the conference, and much good was done in bringing about a spirit of cooperation in the work. In some districts these conferences have been held in rural school-houses in the country, the teachers making the journey on foot or on horseback.

An important part of each has been model classes given by the strongest teachers for the benefit of the weaker, thus giving all an opportunity to see the best work being done in the district. Exhibitions of work from both rural and graded schools have been freely displayed, so that the teachers have received many valuable aids looking toward the improvement of their daily work.

In addition to these general school conferences, numerous grade and group meetings, usually presided over by the supervising principal, at which the knotty problems of the work were straightened out, have been held.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

Continued interest has been manifested by the department and by the school boards in the erection of modern school buildings. Every effort is being made to lessen the number of rented schoolrooms as

fast as the resources of the local school boards permit. During the past year four school boards have constructed graded school buildings with funds obtained through loans from the insular government, while several others have obtained the loans and expect to begin building immediately.

Of the 1,168 buildings used for school purposes, 325, or 28 per cent, are owned by the Government, and 843, or 72 per cent, are rented. Of the 1,845 rooms used for common schools, 759, or 42 per cent, are in buildings owned by the Government, and 1,066 rooms, or 58 per cent, in those rented. Of the 325 school buildings mentioned, 102 are within the urban limits and 223 in the rural districts.

STATISTICS.

Number of different pupils actually enrolled in all schools, including special schools:

White—

Males-----	72, 500
Females-----	49, 923
Total -----	122, 423

Colored—

Males-----	21, 913
Females-----	16, 321
Total -----	38, 234

White and colored—

Males-----	94, 413
Females-----	66, 244
Total -----	160, 657

Number of different pupils enrolled during the year:

- (a) In secondary schools (normal and agricultural departments of the university, high, and continuation schools)-----
- 1, 547
- (b) In common schools-----
- 141, 424
- (c) In special schools (night schools, kindergartens, and charitable and correctional institutes)-----
- 17, 686

Average daily attendance for the school year of 171 days (in night schools 132 days)-----

114, 834

Average daily enrollment for the school year of 171 days (in night schools 132 days)-----

125, 299

Number of buildings in use for schools during the year-----

1, 168

Estimated value of all insular school buildings¹-----

\$821, 409

Rental value of other buildings-----

\$75, 576

¹ Including entire expenditure made by the insular government under the direction of the department of education in connection with the acquisition of property and the erection of school buildings since the establishment of civil government.

Number of different teachers employed in the common schools at the end of the year:

White—		
Males	655	
Females	888	
Total	1,543	

Colored—

White and colored—		
Males	769	
Females	1,007	
Total	1,776	

White and colored—

Males	769	
Females	1,007	
Total	1,776	

Number of different teachers employed in secondary schools at the end of the year¹

83

Number of different teachers employed in special schools at the end of the year²

323

Monthly salary of teachers, as fixed by law:

Rural teachers—

First class	\$40
Second class	35
Third class	30

Graded teachers—

First class	55
Second class	50
Third class	45

English graded teachers—

First class	60
Second class	55
Third class	50

Principal teachers—

First class	80
Second class	75
Third class	70

Teachers of English and special-work teachers

75

Continuation teachers

83

To which amounts were added allowances for house rent, as follows:

Rural teachers, not less than \$3 nor more than \$8.

Graded, English graded, and principal teachers, not less than \$8 nor more than \$20.

Total expenditures for school purposes during the fiscal year ending

June 30, 1912:

By insular government	\$980,375
By local government	386,435

¹ Six of these are duplicates.

² Of these 294 are night-school teachers and are duplicates.

CANAL ZONE.

(*From Report of the Isthmian Canal Commission, 1912.*)

The organization of the division of schools consists of 1 superintendent, 2 clerks, 1 supervisor of primary grades, 2 supervisors of children, 1 principal of high school, 7 principals of grammar schools, 66 teachers, and 1 gardener temporarily employed. The total enrollment for the year was 3,321, of which number 1,556 were white children and 1,765 colored children.

Of the 48 white teachers, 13 hold degrees from colleges or universities, 19 hold diplomas from normal schools, 12 have had two or more years' normal, college, or university training. Of the teachers, 25 have had six or more years' experience, 19 have had three or more years' experience, and 4 have had two or more years' experience in public-school work.

In October, 1911, the upper-grade white school at Paraíso was consolidated with the Pedro Miguel white school, and the children transported to and from Pedro Miguel by brake. A new school for white children between the first and fifth grades was opened at Las Cascadas on October 2. Another school for white children of all grades was established at Porto Bello on November 6. New schools for colored children were also established at Majagual, Miraflores, and Cucaracha on October 2, and at Mandingo and Ancon on October 16 and November 17, respectively. The Cristobal colored school was reopened on October 2 in the new school building constructed to replace the one destroyed by fire on March 23, 1911.

On June 30, 1912, there were 26 buildings used for school purposes, 11 for white schools and 15 for colored schools. One of these, a school for lower-grade white children, was conducted in a room of the Las Cascadas Hotel building, and another in a room in a house in Porto Bello, while the school for native children at Majagual was maintained in the native church building at that point. New buildings were erected or old buildings converted for school purposes as follows: Mandingo, 1 room; Ancon, 4 rooms; Miraflores, 1 room; and Cucaracha, 1 room, all for colored children; while the school building at Tabernilla for white children was re-erected at Mount Hope for colored children. An addition of one room was made to the school building at Pedro Miguel for white children.

The total expenditures for school purposes amounted to \$100,997.23, of which sum \$62,122.75 was expended for salaries of superintendent, teachers, and clerks; \$8,230.79 for construction of school buildings; \$3,483.62 for maintenance of buildings; and the remainder for janitor service, furniture and equipment, supplies, and traveling and miscellaneous expenses.

AMERICAN SAMOA.

(From reports of the governor to the Secretary of the Navy.)

The islands of Tutuila and Manua of the Samoan group are United States territory, and have been placed under the control of the Navy Department, with a naval officer as governor of the islands. No appropriations have been made by Congress for the development of the islands nor for the welfare of the natives. The revenues are raised from customs duties and licenses. The natives pay a poll tax in copra, which is marketed by the island government and nets about \$8 per capita. All of the native tax fund is used to pay the salaries of native officials. The only fund from which expenses for educational purposes can be paid is the customs fund, from which there is available about \$1,500 per annum for such purposes.

There is only one Government school in the American islands, which is located on the grounds of the naval station. It has an enrollment of about 50 pupils, with 1 teacher and a native assistant.

In 1905 the people of the western district of Tutuila petitioned the governor that they be allowed to establish a district school and to employ Marist brothers as teachers. A contract was made between the chiefs of the western district and the Marist brothers to continue in force for 20 years. The Marist Society agreed to furnish three brothers of the order as teachers, not to teach religion nor to influence children in religious matters, and the district agreed to pay the teachers each \$300 per annum. The district erected a schoolhouse, and there are now about 120 pupils in attendance. Instruction is given in the English language. The district assesses all males a school tax of a certain amount of copra per annum, amounting to about \$1,000.

The eastern district of Tutuila has taken steps to erect a schoolhouse, and it is hoped that 2 teachers for the school may be obtained from America.

The London Missionary Society maintains a preparatory school for boys at Fagalele, Tutuila, and a school for girls in charge of two white women at Atauloma, Tutuila. All native pastors of this society are required to conduct a day school for both boys and girls. They teach in the Samoan language only, and the instruction is confined to reading, writing, arithmetic, a little geography, and the Bible.

The Society of Marists has decided to erect a schoolhouse in the eastern district of Tutuila and will conduct a private school. There are now 2 schools for girls in Tutuila conducted by Catholic sisters. English is taught in one of them.

The Mormons conduct 3 schools in Tutuila. Their principal school is located at Mapusaga, where English is taught to both boys and girls. Their teachers are young Americans who serve without pay. They have a flourishing plantation, all the land being held by natives, and an attempt is made to give instruction to the natives in the cultivation of the soil.

In the island of Manua there is 1 school for boys taught by a native pastor in addition to the usual parochial schools.

In summing up the conditions regarding education in American Samoa, the governor states:

- (1) The only "public" schools in Tutuila are the Government boys' school and the western district boys' school.
- (2) In the denominational parochial schools no English is taught (except by Mormons), and undue time is spent on Bible study.
- (3) There is not sufficient instruction in the English language.
- (4) Education for all children does not proceed far enough.
- (5) Conditions in educational matters are generally unsatisfactory to the governor.

An effort has been made during the past year to improve the condition of the schools. A convention of all the school-teachers of all denominations was called in November, 1911, and was attended by all teachers except those of the Roman Catholic Church. The convention was addressed by the governor, by the Government school-teacher, and by other persons who have had experience in teaching. The convention recommended that a law for compulsory education be passed, and this law was passed by the governor, after a consultation with the district governors and other high chiefs.

Another meeting of white teachers was called on April 16, 1912, to consider what textbooks should be adopted. A committee was appointed to standardize schoolbooks and the school courses for those schools taught by non-Samoans. The work required in each grade has now been standardized.

While it is not possible to enforce upon any religious denomination any certain kinds of books, it is found that the convention and subsequent meetings of the school-teachers have been of great value in coordinating the work of the different denominations, and most of them now use the same textbooks.

GUAM.

The annual report of J. Schnabel, superintendent of public instruction of the island of Guam, for the year ended June 30, 1912, shows a total enrollment in the public schools of 1,622, of which number 844 are boys and 778 girls. The total number of teachers was 28. There were 12 public day schools, 1 night school, and a music (band) class. The location of these schools, with the number of teachers and pupils in each, is as follows:

Teachers and pupils in public schools.

Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.	
		Boys.	Girls.
Agana No. 1.....	7	301	283
Agana No. 2.....	2	50	26
Agana No. 3.....	3	121	113
Asan.....	1	19	28
Piti.....	2	40	33
Sumay.....	2	54	62
Agat.....	2	57	64
Umatac.....	1	29	24
Merizo.....	2	46	45
Ynarajan.....	2	42	53
Dededo.....	1	30	21
Ordot.....	1	14	16
Night school.....	1	27	5
Band (music class).....	1	14
Total.....	28	844	778

The percentage of attendance in the public schools is very high, ranging from 95 to 99 per cent in the several schools. Half-day sessions are held, boys attending in the forenoon and girls in the afternoon, excepting in Agana School No. 2 and in the schools at Dededo and Ordot, where boys and girls attend both sessions. The half-day sessions are rendered necessary on account of lack of room in the school buildings to accommodate all the pupils at one time.

The schools in Agana have been graded, and the following course of study has been prescribed:

AGANA SCHOOL No. 1.

- Class C-1.—Newsom Primer (pp. 12-47), mental arithmetic.
 Class B-3.—Newsom Primer (pp. 48-65), elementary arithmetic (pp. 1-30).
 Class B-2.—Newsom Primer (pp. 66-124), elementary arithmetic (pp. 1-53).
 Class B-1.—Newsom First Reader (pp. 1-45), elementary arithmetic (pp. 54-71).
 Class A-3.—Newsom First Reader (pp. 46-91), elementary arithmetic (pp. 72-84).
 Class A-2.—Newsom First Reader (pp. 92-138), elementary arithmetic (pp. 85-101).
 Class A-1.—Barnes's Second Reader, Rational Spelling Book (1st part), elementary arithmetic (pp. 102-118), elementary geography (pp. 5-20).

AGANA SCHOOL No. 2.

- Class B.—Barnes's Third Reader, Mother Tongue, elementary arithmetic, elementary geography, elementary history of the United States, spelling, penmanship, and drawing.
 Class A.—Barnes's Fifth and Fourth Reader, Mother Tongue, advanced arithmetic, elementary and complete geography, elementary history of the United States, spelling, hygiene, dictation, penmanship, and drawing.

Instruction is given also in vocal music in both the forenoon and afternoon sessions, and averages about one-half hour at each session.

Reviews are held every Friday on work done during the week, and an examination is held every three months to determine the fitness of pupils for promotion to the next higher grade. The superintendent recommends that at least two professionally trained teachers be sent from the United States to take charge of the highest grades in Agana.

Most of the teachers are natives of the island, and some of them are endeavoring to improve themselves by attending the sessions of the night school. Several enlisted men of the United States Navy on duty in Guam have been detailed as teachers.

The report shows that improvements of a sanitary nature are being made in some of the school buildings, and shower baths have been installed in two of them. The amount expended for school furniture, rent, and repairs is \$2,486.08, including a new school building in Ordot and playgrounds in Agana. The superintendent recommends that a small sum be set aside annually for the decoration of school-rooms, and he urges that use be made of the flag and of pictures of great men like Washington, Lincoln, and others.

CHAPTER XVI.

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN CANADA.

By ANNA TOLMAN SMITH,

Specialist in Foreign Educational Systems, Editorial Division, Bureau of Education.¹

CONTENTS.

Introduction—The main features of the systems of public instruction—Statistics of public elementary and high schools—Current activities—Training in manual arts and agriculture—Commissions on industrial education—Higher education.

Never before in the history of the world was education the subject of such widespread national interest as at the present time. The relative vigor of nations is no longer estimated solely by the strength of their armaments or their wealth, but, in constantly increasing degree, by the efficiency and universality of their school provision. This fact is emphasized by the numerous commissions sent on world tours to investigate educational systems, and by the international congresses called to discuss principles and methods of public education with a view, in every case, to the improvement of home conditions.

In the discussions and legislative measures which the subject excites, broad distinction is made between the agencies for popular education and those engaged in the work of liberal and professional education. This distinction obtains to some degree in countries where there is no traditional or social cleavage between schools for the people and higher institutions; it is noticeable, however, that the distinction is lessening, even in countries where it is most pronounced. Everywhere systems of popular education, elementary, and industrial, are expanding and overlapping systems of liberal education.

¹ The chapters in this report relating to education in foreign countries were prepared under the direction of the Specialist in Foreign Educational Systems, unless otherwise credited.

As regards elementary education, which in nearly all foreign countries is administered as a separate department, current activities have at present three main directions: First, the endeavor to make adequate provision of schools—a task of peculiar difficulty in new communities, in communities which have fallen behind in the march of progress, and in the centers of congested and constantly increasing populations; second, the endeavor to adjust school training to the vital needs of the people; and third, the endeavor to utilize the school system for hygienic and welfare services which affect the entire population. The mere enumeration of these activities serves to indicate the stages of advance in respect to popular education that mark different nations. The greater number are still struggling with the first problem, namely, that of getting schools enough. Comparatively few nations, indeed, have passed the first stage of effort and are working out the problems of efficiency and general uplift.

Canada, like the United States, offers examples of endeavor in all the directions indicated. The newer Provinces have first to provide the essential conditions of a school system, buildings, teachers, etc., and this necessity they are meeting with liberal expenditure; at the same time, on account of the rapid growth of cities and of concentrated industry in their midst, they are forced to consider the problems that are most urgent in long-settled communities. The older Provinces of Canada are chiefly engaged in readjusting their systems of public instruction as required by the complex conditions of modern industrial life. Hence, from the similarity of their problems, there is a community of interest between educators in the United States and in Canada that makes the interchange of experiences helpful to both.

MAIN FEATURES OF THE SYSTEMS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Every Province of Canada has independent control of its educational affairs in accordance with the British North American act of 1867, which applied to the four Provinces (Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick) then united under the general name of Dominion of Canada. The same right has been assured to the Provinces that have since entered the confederation.

The public-school systems in the Dominion are particularly marked by the combination of central and local control, the former being most highly developed in Ontario. The minister of education in this Province has extensive judicial authority and powers of appointment, and as a member of the legislature initiates and largely directs school legislation. In all the Provinces, excepting Quebec, public elementary schools are free, and school attendance is compulsory for all children not otherwise instructed. In Ontario,

Alberta, and Saskatchewan provision is made for separate schools for Roman Catholics and for Protestants, and the supporters of the separate schools are exempt from the payment of the local tax. The separate schools, however, are under Government inspection, and in general have the same regulations as the public schools. The public schools are classified as elementary and high, but in Ontario the high schools are comprised in a distinct division of the system, and tuition fees are charged in them, although these are often remitted.

The support of the public schools in the several Provinces is derived from provincial grants, municipal appropriations, and local school taxes.

The local control of schools in all the Provinces rests with elected boards, which establish schools and appoint school inspectors and teachers, but the qualifications for these positions are determined by provincial laws.

The system of public instruction in Quebec departs most widely from the common type. Provision is made for the separate control of Roman Catholic and Protestant schools under a central authority, the council of public instruction, which is organized in two committees; the one charged with the direction of the Catholic schools; the other with that of the Protestant schools (law of 1875).

The Roman Catholic committee consists of—(1) The bishops, ordinaries, or administrators of the Roman Catholic dioceses and apostolic vicariates situated either in whole or in part in the Province; ex officio members. (2) An equal number of Roman Catholic laymen appointed by the lieutenant governor in council.

The Protestant committee consists entirely of Protestant members, equal in number to the appointed members of the Roman Catholic committee, and, like them, appointed by the lieutenant governor.

School questions in which the interests of Roman Catholics and Protestants are collectively concerned are under the jurisdiction of the council of public instruction, and shall be decided by it.

School questions in which the interests of Roman Catholics or Protestants are exclusively concerned are decided by that one of the two committees which represents the religious belief which the party concerned professes.

The superintendent of public instruction, who is appointed by and holds office at the pleasure of the lieutenant governor, is ex officio a member of the council of public instruction and of each of its two committees, but he has a right to vote only in the committee of the religious faith to which he belongs. In the exercise of his functions he is bound to comply with the directions of the council of public instruction, or with those of its committees.

In general, it may be said, that the administration of public schools in the Provinces is similar to that in the United States; the intimate

relations between the two countries give special interest to the particulars summarized in the following statistics:

Statistics of public elementary and high schools.

Provinces.	Year.	Enrollment.			Ratio of average attendance to enrollment.	Teachers.		
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.		Men.	Women.	Total.
<i>Per cent.</i>								
Ontario.....	1910	235,131	224,014	459,145	60.84	1,696	8,822	10,518
Quebec.....	1909-10	379,123	2,383	13,314	15,697
Nova Scotia.....	1911	102,910	331	2,468	2,799
New Brunswick.....	1910-11	31,871	31,202	63,073	69.82	221	1,754	1,975
Manitoba.....	1910	76,247	20.85	2,153	621	2,774
British Columbia.....	1910-11	25,734	24,234	49,968	75.00	323	856	1,179
Prince Edward Island.....	1910-11	9,152	8,245	17,397	69.40	178	413	591
Alberta.....	1911	31,753	29,907	61,660	2,651
Saskatchewan.....	1910	33,356	30,608	63,964	52.80	1,074	1,598	2,672

¹ Not including 32,612 pupils in high schools, which are administered separately.

Enrollment.

Provinces.	Population in 1911.	Total school enrollment.	Ratio of school enrollment to population.	Ages for compulsory attendance.	
				Per cent.
Ontario.....	2,520,000	459,145	18.22	8-14
Quebec.....	2,000,000	379,123	18.95
Nova Scotia.....	462,000	102,910	22.27	7-12	7-12
New Brunswick.....	352,000	63,073	17.91	7-12	7-12
Manitoba.....	455,000	76,247	15.17
British Columbia.....	363,000	49,968	13.76	7-12	7-12
Prince Edward Island.....	94,000	17,397	18.50	8-13	8-13
Alberta.....	373,000	61,660	16.53	7-12	7-12
Saskatchewan.....	453,000	63,964	14.12	7-12	7-12

Expenditure for public elementary and high schools.

Provinces.	Expenditure.	Per capita of enrollment.
	
Ontario.....	¹ \$9,343,102	\$20.34
Quebec.....	6,010,104	15.85
Nova Scotia.....	1,271,675	12.35
New Brunswick.....	² 873,696	² 12.81
Manitoba.....	2,590,345	33.97
British Columbia.....	³ 2,730,773	54.65
Prince Edward Island.....	181,572	10.43
Alberta.....	2,085,056	33.81
Saskatchewan.....	3,655,428	57.14

¹ Not including high schools.

² For 1910.

³ Also \$1,151,715 for buildings.

Teachers and salaries.

Provinces.	Number of teachers.			Proportion of men teachers.	Average annual salaries of teachers.	
	Men.	Women.	Total.		Men.	Women.
Ontario.....	1,696	8,822	10,518	16	\$711	\$483
Quebec.....	2,383	13,314	15,697	15	824	178
Nova Scotia.....	331	2,468	2,799	12	235 to 1,054	208 to 652
New Brunswick.....	221	1,754	1,975	11	271 to 1,051	229 to 402
Prince Edward Island.....	178	413	591	30	197 to 459	149 to 282
Alberta.....			2,651		675 to 1,029	658 to 738
Saskatchewan.....	1,074	1,598	2,672	40	787 to 1,015	638 to 715

CURRENT ACTIVITIES.

Recent reports from the Canadian Provinces show great activity in respect to multiplying schools and extending the scope of popular education. The newer Provinces, by reason of the stream of immigrants for which they must provide, have heavy expenditure for schoolhouses and teachers. The older Provinces are better able to keep pace in these respects with the increase of population, though this effort entails ever-increasing expense. In Ontario, where the cost of building has greatly advanced within a few years, the expenditure for primary education, including permanent works and the provision for expanding programs, rose from \$6,100,000 to \$9,300,000 in the half decade 1906-1910. The teachers have shared in this increase; the average salary for men, which in 1907 was \$907, has risen to \$1,089; and for women from \$453 to \$565.

TRAINING IN MANUAL ARTS AND AGRICULTURE.

The movement for giving a more practical character to elementary education, which received great impetus from the Macdonald fund donated in 1899, has developed according to the plans of the donor in two directions, i. e., manual training and rural industries, the latter involving also the consolidation of rural schools.¹ When the experimental stage of this effort under private direction had passed the work was adopted into the school systems.

In respect to the organization of the new orders of training, Ontario and Nova Scotia have made great advance. The minister of public instruction for Ontario in his latest report says:

The new act of 1911 providing machinery for the establishment of classes for industrial training has already lent stimulus to the movement for what is comprehensively termed technical education. In a number of urban centers the advisory boards, whose special concern it is to institute and develop these

¹ For a detailed account of this movement supported by the Macdonald fund, see Rep. Commis. Educ. 1907, vol. 1, ch. 7, pp. 225-237.

classes, have been set up, and the result thus far is eminently encouraging. The appointment of Dr. F. W. Merchant as director of industrial and technical education will enable a thorough organization and inspection of the work to be made throughout the Province. During the coming year it is intended that the director shall visit some of the chief centers of technical training in Great Britain and the Continent of Europe, with a view to applying here the latest experience abroad. Without waiting for such encouragement as the Federal authorities may decide to give to technical training as part of the duty which the Dominion Government must discharge in respect of national industrial efficiency, the legislature last year voted an ample sum of money for immediate purposes and will be asked to supplement the grant during the coming year.¹

The efforts with respect to rural industries are summed up as follows:

The agricultural courses established in connection with the high schools have led to such promising results that a number of new centers have been provided during the year. There are now in the Province 18 of these courses in connection with either high schools or continuation schools, and by means of the short courses and the field work generally, which are carried on at convenient points in each county, the latest knowledge is being brought within the reach of the farming community. In this work the departments of agriculture and education unite their efforts. Another step of equal importance was taken in 1911 in order to promote elementary agricultural instruction in the rural public schools. Prof. S. B. McCready, of the staff of the Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph, has been transferred to this department and appointed director of elementary agricultural education. To inspect and encourage the school-garden work connected with the rural schools is one of the duties of the new director, and the prospect of a general extension of this practical application of agriculture to the school program is excellent. There were in 1910 just 17 school gardens in the Province, upon which grants aggregating \$750 were paid, while at the close of 1911 the returns showed 33 school gardens, with grants aggregating \$2,320. Here, as in other departments of school training, much depends upon the teacher. In 1911 the grant of \$30 on the certificate of teachers holding a certificate in elementary agriculture and horticulture giving the required instruction was paid to 33 teachers. The encouragement given to normal-school graduates to take the three months' courses provided by this department at the agricultural college from April to June each year is beginning to bear fruit. The number of certificates issued in elementary agriculture and horticulture and industrial arts during the three years the courses have been in existence is 319, and the hope is that this number may increase until a large proportion of the teachers in our rural schools possess at least a grasp of agricultural conditions and have the sympathetic outlook which can do so much to inspire country pupils with an interest in the life about them. In referring to his new sphere of work, the director of elementary agriculture education reports: "Everywhere throughout the world there is evidence of a strong desire on the part of educationists and governments to have the schools give some measure of instruction in agriculture. Nowhere has the problem been solved completely. The plans that have been in operation in Ontario for the

¹ See Rep. of Minister of Educ., Ontario, 1911. Dept. of Educ., Ontario, Circ. 13, 1911. Regulations relating to elementary agriculture and horticulture and school gardens (Published in 1912.)

Dept. of Educ., Ontario, 1912. Manual training and household science in high, continuation, public, and separate schools. Regulations.

past five years give promise of a very satisfactory solution of the problem. To promote the work, teachers are trained especially at Guelph, material is sent for gardening purposes, special grants are paid both trustees and teachers, practical help is given by the district agricultural representatives, and the teachers assisted by charts, bulletins, and instruction sheets. In no other part of Canada nor in any State of the United States has any better scheme been devised, nor indeed has greater progress been made. There is strong evidence that the advancement of the work from now on will be rapid. Public opinion is becoming alive to the importance and the desirability of this kind of instruction being given in the schools."

In Nova Scotia technical education is well organized under the immediate supervision of a director who is also principal of the Nova Scotia Technical College. By this combination of duties the practical courses of instruction in the elementary schools coordinate in a measure with the work of the special technical schools. The latter include the Nova Scotia Technical College and three types of secondary technical schools, namely:

(1) Coal-mining schools, to train men for colliery managers, underground managers, and overmen.

(2) Engineering schools, to instruct engineers, firemen, etc., in steam and mechanical engineering, so that they may obtain certificates as first, second, or third class stationary engineers.

(3) Technical schools, where artisans or people who are engaged in commercial life are given evening instruction in mathematics, English, bookkeeping, science, drawing, or needlework which appertain especially to their vocations.

The work of the department is rapidly extending, as indicated by the increase of its expenditures from \$33,068 in 1909 to \$53,998 in 1911.

Interest in rural industries is promoted by the agricultural college at Truro, which, in connection with the Provincial Normal School, conducts a summer school of rural science for the purpose of affording teachers the opportunity to acquire the special knowledge required for teaching the elements of the sciences relating to agriculture, household, industry, etc. The attendance at all the technical and special schools directly under the education department increased from 2,306 in 1910 to 2,476 in 1911.

This total includes 134 teachers attending the vacation course at Truro, and 83 teachers a shorter, but similar, course at the summer science school of the Atlantic Provinces.

From this summary it will be seen that Nova Scotia has taken advanced standing in respect to organizing practical studies and in preparing teachers for their proper conduct in both elementary schools and higher institutions.

The work started by private benefaction and enterprise is maintained in some form in all the Provinces, as indicated by current

reports. The director of the Macdonald College school for teachers, in his report covering the year 1911-12, says:

The educational propaganda recently carried on by the Quebec government has done much to awaken interest in rural education. In many localities there is great need for consolidation, which would make it possible, by the combination of two schools, to pay a salary which would secure a trained teacher. There is also need for some form of rural trustees' association by which school commissioners could meet together and discuss the needs of rural schools. Another desirable change proposed is the granting of rural-school diplomas to students taking an extended course in agriculture or household science at Macdonald College with a minimum training in teaching. The first essential characteristic of a rural school-teacher is that he know and appreciate his environment, be able to make the best of rural conditions, and desire to live in the country. Macdonald College is unsurpassed and probably unequaled in its facilities for imparting such a spirit to the students who desire to teach rural schools. A vote of students in the classes of the past few years showed that the majority of our students prefer to teach in the country; indeed, a number of them have returned to their own homes to teach at salaries half as large as they could have obtained in the city.

The director of manual training for the Province of New Brunswick reports that:

Seventeen school woodworking shops have been in operation, all of which have been visited, as required by law, during the term. Of these, four are in rural schools and three in consolidated schools, and in them the woodwork is taken by all the boys from grade six up. This condition also obtains in five of the city and town schools. In the remainder shopwork is only given to the boys of grades six to eight, inclusive, except in the city of St. John, where this work is confined to the boys of grades seven and eight.

Nine household science departments have been open in the Province. In all but two of these the subject has been presented to the girls of grades six to eleven, inclusive. In St. John only the girls of grades eight and nine take the work, although sewing is carried on to a limited extent in some of the lower grades in that city. In some schools throughout the country grades four and five take sewing regularly.

Systematic handwork, however, is carried on in very few of the elementary schools. In 1911 school gardens were maintained in connection with 17 schools.

In Prince Edward Island a central institution, the Macdonald manual training schools, offers opportunity for the boys in the three school districts to take manual training as part of the regular school course. The plan of consolidated rural schools has thus far awakened but little interest in the Province, but one school of this kind is maintained to serve as a model, with financial aid from Sir William Macdonald.

The inspector of manual training for the Province of British Columbia reports steady growth of the manual-training movement throughout the Province. There were 17 centers for this work in

1911, with a total attendance of 3,292 boys. Arrangements were made for the equipment of additional centers for 1912.

Manitoba reports classes in woodwork and in sewing and cooking in several cities; in Winnipeg this work is carefully systematized for the girls, and a corresponding course in manual training is conducted for the boys. Recently the capital city has created two large technical high-school buildings, at a cost of \$400,000 each. Both schools are well equipped with shops and laboratories. Interest in the improvement of rural education is indicated in a few districts by the establishment of consolidated schools. One of these, the Starbuck consolidated school, is a model in arrangement and equipment.

In Edmonton, capital of the lately organized Province of Alberta, manual training and domestic science are subjects of the regular school program, beginning in the grades and extending through the high school.

COMMISSIONS ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Manual training and instruction in rural industries have thus far been promoted in the Canadian Provinces with chief reference to their power in stimulating natural activities and utilizing familiar experiences; but, as the movement progresses, the relation of this practical training to the industrial life of the individual and of the State is emphasized, and this larger conception leads to the examination of the subject from both the economic and the educational standpoint.

In 1910 a royal commission on industrial education was appointed under the chairmanship of Prof. Robertson, for a comprehensive investigation of the conditions of industrial efficiency in the principal countries of the world. This action was taken at the request of the premiers of the several Provinces, prompted by the conviction "that the industrial interests of Canada may be best promoted by the adoption of approved systems and methods of industrial and technical training."¹

From advanced notices of the report of the commission, it appears that while the higher forms of technical training were investigated, the ordinary school systems were particularly considered as the basis upon which all other education must rest.

The appointment of the commission for the Dominion was followed by the appointment the same year (1910) of a royal commission to inquire into the industrial needs of the people of the Province of Manitoba, and to recommend to the government of the Province a system or plan for establishing such technical or industrial schools

¹ See Rep. Commis. Educ., 1910, vol. 1, ch. 8, pp. 373-374.

or colleges as the circumstances of the Province will admit. In the course of their investigation this commission conferred with manufacturers and other employers of skilled labor, mechanics representing the various trades, social workers, teachers and school officials, and citizens whose position and experience gave weight to their opinions. The witnesses were unanimous in the opinion that the conditions of the Province require the adoption of some well-considered scheme of vocational training "based upon and accompanied by the essentials of a good general education."

This opinion was embodied in the recommendations of the commission, which included the formation of an advisory board to assist the education department in the development of a scheme; the appointment of an officer familiar with the aims and methods of vocational education, whose duty it would be to advise with and assist school boards in the organization of such work, and the provision of grants by the provincial government, as in the case of manual training and household science, to assist in meeting the cost of equipment and maintenance of approved forms of vocational training.

In the progress of the investigation a subcommittee was appointed to investigate and report upon systems and institutions for industrial education in the United States, and the results of this investigation form a very interesting part of the report of the commission, to which comparative significance is given by résumés of the reports of recent similar commissions whose investigations were extended to European countries.¹

HIGHER EDUCATION.

The recent development of higher education in the Dominion of Canada has been marked in the older Provinces by the federation of colleges with central universities. In Ontario this result has been brought about by the federation of colleges with the University of Ontario; in Quebec, by federation with McGill University, Montreal, and with Laval University, which is the center of higher education for the Catholic population of that Province. The relations thus established give uniform value to the degrees which are granted only by the universities. The need of consolidation has been recognized in Nova Scotia, and also in New Brunswick. In the newer western Provinces the movements for higher education center about three recently established universities. Of these, the University of Alberta is the oldest, having been established in 1908. The year following, the University of Saskatchewan was founded; and the year 1912 has been marked by the culmination of measures for the

¹ See Report of the Royal Commission on Technical Education and Industrial Training, Winnipeg, Manitoba, 1912.

establishment of the University of British Columbia. The provincial government has contributed for this institution a valuable site of 217 acres (of an estimated value of $2\frac{1}{2}$ million dollars) in one of the choicest districts of the city of Vancouver; 2,000,000 acres of public land have been set apart for an endowment fund. Measures are also in progress for the establishment at Calgary of a private university, for which liberal contributions, both in money and land, have already been made by private individuals. The following table summarizes the principal statistics pertaining to the universities of the Dominion already established.

University statistics.

Institutions.	Date of foundation.	Endow- ment as reported in 1904.	Students.	
			1908-9	1911-12
University of Alberta, Strathcona.....	1907		45	1,180
University of Manitoba, Winnipeg.....	1877	² \$150,000	461	761
University of New Brunswick, Fredericton.....	1800	³ 8,984	153	-----
University of Acadia College, Wolfville, Nova Scotia.....	1833	241,970	191	238
Dalhousie College and University, Halifax, Nova Scotia.....	1818	420,000	420	405
University of King's College, Windsor, Nova Scotia.....	1790	140,000	47	49
University of Toronto and University College and Federated Institutions.....	1827	3,315,924	4,583	4,149
Laval University, Montreal.....	1876	-----	977	1,063
Laval University, Quebec.....	1852		421	400
McGill University, Montreal, Quebec.....	1821	45,010,569	1,912	2,484

¹ In round numbers.

² Acres of land.

³ Government grant.

⁴ Cash endowment as reported in 1910, exclusive of lands, buildings, and plant. Of the total, \$2,002,333 belongs to Macdonald College.

CHAPTER XVII.

EDUCATION IN THE LATIN-AMERICAN STATES.

CONTENTS.

Introduction—Mexico—Central America.

South American Republics: Comparative view of public-school enrollment; Argentina; Brazil; Bolivia; Chile; Paraguay; Peru; Uruguay; Venezuela.

INTRODUCTION.

The Latin-American countries are marked by common scholastic traditions and impulses derived from their early subjection to Spanish and Portuguese influences, hence the predominant regard for higher education and the indifference to popular education which prevailed throughout the several Republics to a very recent date. Notwithstanding the fact that the leaders in the revolutionary movement which freed the different States from dependence upon European powers all advocated plans for the enlightenment of the people as of first consequence in the political experiment upon which the States were entering, efforts in behalf of popular education have been on the whole feeble and spasmodic until the present time. The following survey relates chiefly to the changed policy in respect to this fundamental interest.

MEXICO.

The political disasters of Mexico have diverted attention from the educational activities which were promoted by President Porfirio Diaz during his long administration and continued with undiminished vigor until the revolutionary outbreak. In his address at the opening of the fourth period of sessions of the Twenty-sixth Congress of Mexico, April 1, 1912, President Madero declared that education was a matter of special concern to the Executive, and that every endeavor was made to secure competent instructors for the public schools and to encourage them by "high salaries, promotions, pensions, and every other privilege conduced to their advantage."

Measures for promoting the health and physical welfare of school children were summed up in the message, as follows:

Scrupulous care is also exercised with respect to the morality of the instructors and the hygiene of the schools. With this latter object in view, a careful examination is made of all premises offered as schoolhouses, and even of the premises already occupied as such, in order to reject those that are unsuited or expensive. The object, of course, of these endeavors to secure better instructors and premises is the welfare of the pupils, whose attendance at school is thus facilitated and who are led to feel an affection for their schoolhouse.

CHILDREN WITH SKIN DISEASES.

The various departments of the special school for children suffering from skin diseases continue to be numerously attended. Various experiments have been made at this school in the use of the X rays for the cure of ringworm, and 350 pupils affected with common warts have received treatment.

HELPING SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Among measures adopted for the benefit of school children may be mentioned the establishment of school refectories, of which there are now 29 in the Federal District, attended on an average by 5,800 pupils, who there receive food free or at very low prices, and the distribution of 25,000 pairs of shoes to be effected in the schools, also free or at very low prices. It may be added that the manufacture of these shoes was intrusted to shoemakers out of work, who were thus themselves greatly benefited.

The President noted also that, in accordance with extensions of its authority in school matters, by act of July 1, 1911, the Federal Government had made a beginning in the establishment of rudimentary schools throughout the Republic. In each State an official had been appointed to install these schools, and it was proposed to create approximately 500 of them.¹

Mexico shares also in the world-wide movement for agricultural improvement, an interest which is being promoted by a number of the State governments as well as by the Federal Government. An agricultural experiment station has been established in San Juan Bautista, the capital of the State of Tabasco, which is subsidized by the Federal Government. The station will be devoted to experimental agriculture and all agricultural and kindred interests of this State. Pupils will have to pay only actual cost of food, books, and lodging, no admission or tuition fee being charged.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

The status of public instruction in the States of Central America remains practically the same as that shown in the commissioner's report for 1910.² Costa Rica still leads in respect to the actual pro-

¹ From translation of the President's message, forwarded through the Department of State.

² Rept. of Commissioner of Educ., 1910, vol. 1, ch. ix.

vision of schools and in measures for further progress. During the current year the assistant secretary of public instruction, Señor Brenes-Mesén, was commissioned by his Government to make an investigation of the systems of public instruction in the United States, and in particular to study the organization and work of rural and industrial schools for the purpose of gaining suggestions applicable to Costa Rica.

Panama.—In his address on the occasion of his inauguration as President of Panama, October 1, 1912, Dr. Belisario Porras, after reviewing the general condition of public affairs in the State, continued:

Of our administrative services, none is so respectable, so important, and so sacred as that of public instruction. The physical, moral, and intellectual development of our children and our young men should occupy more of our time. It is well known that men may become what we wish them to be if trained from infancy. * * *

The first influence is decisive in man's destiny. Morality exists in habits or customs; repeated acts constitute vice if they are bad, and virtue if they are good. It is never superfluous to repeat such simple truths. It therefore seems logical that our country may live in peace and order if her men are taught from childhood to respect each other's religious beliefs and political opinions, existing interests, and all legitimate aspirations. Human right is just that. It is also very plain that in order that our country should prosper, it would suffice to have healthy, strong men, lovers of progress and of work, and in order that it may be lasting it must have devoted citizens, decided, constant, loyal, and brave. Hence the main reason why public instruction must not be only an apprenticeship of arts and sciences but of sound education.

The acquirement of teachers who will know how to educate and mold the souls is the principal problem, and shall be, therefore, the object of my most earnest and well-intentioned efforts.

The Congress of Panama has just passed (February, 1913) a new public-instruction bill, which will undoubtedly receive the President's signature. According to a synopsis forwarded from the American consul general:

The Republic is divided into scholastic districts, each under an inspector, except the capital, which is to have two. The bill also provides that parents, tutors, or guardians of children who have attained school age must prove, if required, that these children are receiving elementary education, while persons employing children under 15 years of age can not bring any objection to their being educated.

Further provisions of this bill are: Promotion of education among adults in condition to receive same by the establishment of night schools, or teaching in night schools, prisons, colonies of farmers, or any other place containing 40 adult uneducated persons; the founding, where the Executive deems most convenient, of two schools of agriculture or model farms, in place of the one provided for in Law 43 of 1911, and the Executive may engage two foreign directors

for these schools; the creation of the post of dressmaker and cutter in the normal school, who shall devote at least 15 hours weekly to this work.¹

SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

The dawn of a new era in the States of South America is marked by efforts for the spread of public education and the improvement of schools and higher institutions. These efforts are pursued under widely different conditions of population and social order, and in several of the countries referred to are constantly interrupted by political disturbances. Argentina and Uruguay have been specially progressive by reason of more stable conditions and the character of their populations; but while the States named have recently made the greatest progress in the development of popular education, other States are taking active measures in the same direction, and several maintain institutions that have contributed greatly to the general movement. It is impossible to show by statistics the actual condition of elementary education in the different States, from the lack of uniformity in their reports and the difficulty of securing details from the local authorities, which, in general, have independent control of the schools within their respective areas. The following table, drawn from current reports and special documents² received in this office, shows approximately the extent of primary education at the present time. It should be considered, however, that the public primary schools do not draw pupils from the upper classes; their children attend either the preparatory departments of the colleges or private schools, with respect to which this office has only fragmentary information. The table as it stands will serve as a basis for future comparisons, and it will also conduce to a clearer understanding of the particulars which follow.

Comparative view of public-school enrollment.

	Popula-tion.	Date of census or esti-mate.	Enrollment in public primary schools.	Ratio to popula-tion.
Argentina.....	7,171,910	1911	650,627	9.00
Bolivia.....	2,267,935	1910	46,000	2.03
Brazil.....	21,461,100	1909	634,539	2.96
Chile.....	3,329,030	1910	258,875	7.78
Colombia.....	4,320,000	1910	200,965	4.65
Ecuador.....	1,500,000	1910	93,900	6.26
Paraguay.....	752,000	1910	40,600	5.40
Peru.....	4,000,000	1909	153,900	3.85
Uruguay.....	1,112,000	1910	76,000	6.83
Venezuela.....	2,713,703	1911	44,600	1.64

¹ Epitome prepared by Alban G. Snyder, consul general to Panama.

² See El Monitor de la educación comun. Órgano del consejo nacional de educación. Buenos Aires, mayo 31 de 1912.

ARGENTINA.

Argentina in 1910 had an estimated population of 7,091,822, including only 30,000 Indians. Of the total given, 1,995,211, or more than one-fourth, was comprised in 13 cities, ranging from San Luis, with 13,994 inhabitants, to Buenos Aires, with 1,319,747. If to this number be added the population of the Province of Buenos Aires, not including the capital, the total is 3,791,531. In other words, more than half the population of the State is sufficiently concentrated for the creation of strong public opinion and diversified industries.

Public primary education is organized in accordance with a law of July 8, 1884, which reflects very plainly the influence of movements taking place in France at that time. In fact, French influences have had much to do with shaping both political and educational systems throughout South America. In the present movement for the uplift of primary schools and provision for technical education there is a general tendency to look to the United States for guidance.

By the law of 1884 primary education in Argentina is free for all children and obligatory for ages 6 to 14. Religious instruction is excluded from the regular programs, but it is permitted in the schools, and by the clergy, authorized, before and after school hours. Local school committees are appointed to look after the matter of school attendance, and fines are imposed for violation of the law in this respect. The law also requires that local appropriations shall be made to assist needy pupils.

The control of education in the 14 Provinces having been reserved to them by the constitution, the law of 1884 applied only to the Federal district and the territories; but as the provincial laws embody the principles of the national law, primary education is, theoretically, secular, free, obligatory, and graded throughout the Republic.

The failure of the provincial authorities to enforce the compulsory school-attendance law, and to make due provision of schools, led to the enactment in 1905 of the Láinez law, which authorized the Federal Government to maintain national schools in the Provinces, as a means of preventing illiteracy.

For the support of schools under the control of the Government a fund is maintained to which are applied certain taxes and 40 per cent of the direct contributions for national expenditures from the capital, the territories, and the national colonies.

In addition to the regular primary schools, there may be maintained at public expense infant schools, schools or classes for adults, and ambulatory schools.

The following statistics show the number and classification of the primary schools, and their enrollment, as reported for 1911:

Primary schools.	Number.	Enrollment.
Public.....	4,489	498,165
National (Láinez law).....	1,514	130,000
Private.....	1,355	114,478
Annexes (normal schools).....	62	22,462
Total.....	7,420	765,105

For the service of the public schools 14,451 teachers (2,428 men, 12,023 women) were employed.

The great excess of women teachers is regarded as a serious evil, and the importance of bringing all boys under the virile influence of men is urged, as in the United States. The causes of this excess are said to be the small inducements, material and social, that the work offers, and the political persecutions and irritating favoritism that mark official life in the Provinces and make it especially irksome to earnest men.

The enrollment in all classes of primary schools, viz., 765,105, is equivalent to 10.6 per cent of the estimated population; omitting private schools, the enrollment in public schools equals 9 per cent of the population, a ratio which places Argentina at the head of the Latin States of the Western Continent in respect to the diffusion of elementary education. The statistics show, further, a marked increase in the relative school attendance; in 1902 the enrollment in all classes of primary schools was equivalent to 8.6 per cent of the population, as against 10.6 per cent in 1911. This increase is due largely to the efforts of the General Government, as the statistics show a decline in provincial schools since the Láinez law went into effect.

The State appropriations for education have greatly increased during the past half decade, rising from 10,221,421 pesos (\$9,863,671) in 1906 to 22,000,000 pesos (\$21,230,000) in 1911. The estimated appropriations by the provincial governments for the latter year, 15,000,000 pesos, would raise the amount available for primary education to 37,000,000 pesos (\$35,705,000), or very nearly \$5 per capita of population.

The principal cities of Argentina are very progressive in educational matters, and their schools compare favorably with those of the principal cities of the United States and Europe, especially as regards buildings and equipment. Attention to the educational side, that is, to organization and methods of instruction, is indicated by the revolution in the system of drawing in the schools of Buenos Aires and La Plata. This change, which is due largely to the in-

vestigation of systems in the United States, has substituted for the constant copy of conventional forms the study of natural forms, their reproduction, and the analysis of their elements as a basis of design.

In the broad scheme for reorganizing the public system of instruction, which is under discussion by the Government, the closer coordination of all classes of schools is purposed, and hence experts recently sent to the United States and to Europe for educational investigations are instructed to observe particularly the relations between different orders of instruction, i. e., primary and secondary, general and technical, etc., in the principal countries. A practical experiment in the integration of different classes of schools in Argentina has been made by the recently established University of La Plata, which through its affiliated secondary school opens a direct course from the elementary school to the university. The university school is a model institution, combining some of the best features of English secondary schools with the freer, more natural life of schools of the type of Abbotsholme.

The close relation between secondary schools and universities which exists in Argentina, as in all other South American States, makes it difficult to give new direction to the secondary curriculum without the cooperation of the universities. The two classes of institutions offer a complete scheme of education, having little relation to the work of the primary school; the courses of instruction of the secondary schools (*colegios*) are the preparatory stage for the specialized university faculties. The University of La Plata, with its secondary school, is, therefore, a new departure in education of great interest to all the Latin States.

In the provision for technical and industrial education agricultural interests, which exceed in value all others in the State, claim first consideration. Five national schools of agriculture have been established in accordance with a decree of February 19, 1908; the higher school of agriculture which was created in 1904 was transferred in 1909 to the University of Buenos Aires, and now has the dignity of a university faculty.

BRAZIL.

Brazil, covering an area exceeding that of the United States, exclusive of Alaska, comprises 20 States and the Federal District, having a total population of 21,461,100. The Federal Government is responsible for university education throughout the Union, but has no control of elementary schools outside of the Federal District. This district, under the fostering care of the Government, maintains an excellent system of public schools, in which respect it is rivaled by several of the States, in particular that of Sao Paulo, but there

are vast stretches of territory which are without the means of education. The latest statistics (1910) give for all the States a total of 684,539 pupils in elementary schools, which is only 3 per cent of the population. The disposition on the part of leading men in the different States to remedy this condition, and to supply the means of education for the entire population, is indicated by a decree, bearing date April 5, 1911, which was sanctioned by the National Congress, providing for a reform in the system of public instruction. One feature of the proposed reform is a central board of education, charged with advisory functions and with the power of establishing schools in case the local governments neglect this duty.

Rio de Janeiro, like the chief cities of the Latin States in general, is the seat of a number of special institutions for higher education and for commercial and technical training. The technical school (*Escola Polytechnica do Rio de Janeiro*) maintained by the Federal Government enjoys great distinction, not only in Brazil but in the adjoining States.

The report of the minister of agriculture for 1912 shows that there is great activity in respect to provision for special training for the industries pertaining to agriculture in several States of the Republic. The schools under this ministry include a Superior School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, middle schools of agriculture, schools of agricultural apprenticeship, and traveling lecturers, besides the auxiliary agencies, namely, demonstration camps, model farms, breeding stations, and meteorological stations.

According to a consular report¹—

the Superior School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine has just been installed in one of the Government buildings in Rio de Janeiro, and classes are expected to begin in April. Instruction will be divided into two special courses, one of agronomical engineering and the other of veterinary medicine.

There are three middle schools of agriculture, which furnish the theoretical and practical education of which the conservative Brazilian farmer stands in need. One of these is attached to the breeding station at Pinheiro and was begun in 1912, another is situated in the town of Sao Francisco and has been in operation for two years, and the third is that of Rio Grande do Sul. The curriculum of these schools embraces the general principles of agriculture, zootechnics, and veterinary science, and is preferably concerned with the most usual and best-known branches of rural industry. This is considered the best possible type of school for Brazil, and official opinion as to the utility of these institutions is confirmed by the large number of applications for admission to those established, especially the one at Pinheiro, in Bahia. The third type of agricultural schools is the apprenticeship school, which teaches rational methods of exploiting land, the handling of agricultural implements, the breeding of cattle, the hygiene and feeding of animals, and various agrarian industries. Thus they are intended to supply capable workers for the rural farms and estates within a brief period. There are eight of these schools, all in active operation, and others are being constructed.

¹ See Daily Consular and Trade Reports, 16th year. No. 69 (Mar. 25), 1913.

Traveling professors, chosen according to their specialties, the nature of their districts, etc., disseminate professional instruction in the various branches of agricultural industry. There are 12 of these instructors, and the system constitutes one of the most efficacious methods of developing agriculture, especially considering the fact that the benefits are more immediate and direct than those from the schools.

EXPERIMENTAL SUGAR PLANTATION—DAIRYING AND SERICULTURE SCHOOLS—
REAFFORESTATION.

Measures for developing agriculture and disseminating agricultural information are not confined altogether to the conducting of schools, however. Among other things the Government has established an experimental sugar plantation at Campos, in the State of Rio de Janeiro, and has decreed the establishment of another at Escada, State of Pernambuco. The sugar industry, formerly so prosperous, is said to be passing through a serious crisis, and it is expected that these new institutions will be the source of considerable knowledge on the planting and rational cultivation of cane, distribution of selected plants, fertilizers necessary to increase the saccharine content, etc., which will increase production. It is expected that the new establishments will demonstrate the value of replacing the slow and costly method of boiling in large tanks by modern and economical machinery. The Secretary of Agriculture expresses the opinion that when these modern plants are adopted, the interior of the States is traversed by railway lines, and native sugar is used for the manufacture of native confectionery and preserves, the sugar industry will no longer suffer from the periodical fits of depression that mark it now. The Government expects to establish many more such experiment stations.

Schools of dairying and sericulture have also been established, and an expert from the United States, who made an investigation to determine the practicability of using dry-farming methods in the north of the country, has affirmed that this process can be adopted with absolute certainty of favorable results in the States whose soil, vegetation, and climate he studied. A demonstration camp is to be established in one of the States which suffer from the drought. The continuous destruction of the forests of Brazil has disturbed the hydrographic system of many rivers and has made necessary measures to protect the forests and to replant many of the waste lands formerly covered with trees. The botanical gardens were given the name of Forest Garden, and the scope of work considerably broadened in order to make a study of reafforestation; and from May to August, 1912, 273,622 saplings of fruit-bearing and ornamental trees and shrubs were sent out to municipalities and private individuals.

BOLIVIA.

Bolivia, in which the general diffusion of education is at present impossible, has the nucleus of future development in an excellent normal school at Sucre, whose director, Dr. G. Rouma, is recognized as a leader in those psychological investigations which are bringing elementary training into greater harmony with the natural interests and spontaneous activities of the young.

CHILE.

The system of public instruction in Chile received its formal organization by law of January 9, 1879, but education was the subject of Government concern from the time the Chilean patriots achieved their independence of Spanish rule, and especially after the adoption of the constitution of 1833, which assured stable government. The importance of a new order of secondary schools was early recognized, and as a means of avoiding the excessive literary tendencies of the schools established during the Spanish régime the Instituto Pedagogico was founded (1813) for the training of professors for the secondary schools (*liceos*). German professors were invited to form the faculty of this institution, and as a consequence secondary education in Chile has developed under German influences and with a due proportion of scientific studies. The Pedagogical Institute is, in fact, a university school of education and the chief center of modern studies in South America. It was eventually opened to women, and thus widely extended its influence.

The curriculum of the institute is divided into seven distinct sections, as follows: (1) Spanish; (2) French; (3) English; (4) German; (5) history and geography; (6) mathematics and physics; (7) biology, chemistry, and mineralogy. All students are required to take the strictly professional studies, namely, pedagogics, experimental psychology, logic, ethics, the history of philosophy, civics, and educational organization and legislation.

In addition to the public *liceos* for general education, numbering 39 for men with an enrollment of about 9,500 students and 31 for women with an enrollment of 6,400, the provision for secondary education comprises technical schools of recent origin, which have assumed great importance in the industrial and business world. They include commercial schools at Santiago, Valparaiso, Concepcion, and other cities, which take pupils from 12 to 15 years of age and thus represent the first stage of commercial education. The school of mechanical arts at Santiago bears the same relation to industrial education; Santiago has also led in provision for the industrial training of girls by the establishment of a school in which such trades as dressmaking and millinery are taught, as well as bookkeeping, stenography, etc.

The institutions for higher technical training maintained by the Government include a central agricultural institute and mining schools at La Serena, Santiago, and Copiapo. Textile industries are promoted by a private society, which maintains 14 schools, with about 1,000 pupils in training. The provision for various degrees and kinds of technical training and the scientific and literary character of the Pedagogic Institute have given Chile educational leadership among the western States of South America.

PARAGUAY.

The purpose of the Government of Paraguay with respect to the development of popular education is indicated by the appointment of a commission in 1911 charged to investigate the educational systems of the United States and Europe and to make recommendations as to needed reforms in the system of their own country.

PERU.

The industrial enterprise which marks the current history of Peru has lead to close scrutiny of its educational condition and needs, and in 1909 measures looking to a complete reorganization of the system of public instruction were adopted. For the practical development of these measures assistance was sought by engaging a number of teachers and inspectors from the United States to take charge of individual schools or for the practical oversight of particular districts. At the same time a specialist in educational administration, Dr. H. E. Bard, who had served in the educational department of the Philippines, was selected to act as a consulting expert to the minister of public instruction. As a result of prolonged investigations and conferences a bill providing for the complete reorganization of the system of public instruction was prepared, but before legislative action could be secured the change in the Government which took place in October of the present year interrupted the proceedings.

While political and social conditions interfere with the progress of elementary education the traditions of the country favor the development of higher education not only in its literary and philosophical forms, but in technical directions. The engineering school, established in 1876 and one of the highest rank in South America, has been extended during the year by the addition of a mechanico-electrical section which was formally opened April 28, 1912.

The School of Arts and Crafts, established in 1905, has been enriched on the art side by the addition of a department of sculpture and reorganized on the industrial side under the direction of an electrical engineer, Mr. Victor M. Arana, a graduate from the University of Notre Dame, Ind. Mr. Arana was appointed head of the electrical department early in 1911, and through his efforts, heartily supported by the Government, shops and laboratory facilities have been provided.

The new building of the naval school at La Punta (Lima), which was opened with due ceremony September 15, 1912, is the product of native skill in design and construction. The building is of reinforced concrete, with steel and concrete roof, and was erected at a cost of \$70,000.

The greatest hindrance to educational progress is the embarrassed financial situation of the country, which, as explained by President Billinghurst in his first message to the Congress, demands the immediate and concentrated efforts of the Government.

URUGUAY.

The progressive movement in Uruguay, so far as it pertains to education, is directed first to the spread of elementary education, and second to the improvement of agriculture through the scientific training of farmers and landworkers. As the aboriginal races have disappeared from the country, it is freed from one of the greatest obstacles in South American States to the spread of popular education.

The laws of 1877 and 1885 regulating public instruction in Uruguay, afford the basis for a very good system, and in Montevideo this has been well developed. The elementary schools of this city are organized in three divisions, of which the lowest comprises three grades or years; the intermediate and highest divisions follow, each covering two years. The course of instruction for the three divisions includes a progressive course in manual training, beginning with the Froebelian gifts and ending with woodwork, after the sloyd system. The girls are taught housekeeping, cutting, and sewing, and gymnastics is practiced in all the schools. Medical inspection, which was authorized by law of August 7, 1908, is established in the city and includes the biennial examination of all teachers with regard to their health.

According to the census of 1909, the Department of Montevideo comprised one-third of the total population of the State; in 1910 the enrollment in the primary schools of this Department was equivalent to one-third the total enrollment for Uruguay, namely, 76,000, and the number of teachers bore the same ratio to the total teaching force. Fully 95 per cent of the pupils and teachers in the Department were in the schools of the capital. In this city the current expenditure for primary schools for the year specified was \$332,227, equivalent to \$14.42 per capita of the enrollment, which gives Montevideo very good standing in this respect, as compared with cities of the same size in the United States.

Professional interests are stimulated by the publication at the capital of the *Anales de Instrucción Primaria*, which keeps its readers informed as to the progress of popular education and promotes the discussion of principles and methods. The current volume, for instance, presents a comprehensive report on vocational education (*enseñanza profesional*) in Belgium, and a full account of the

organization of the American public schools, based upon a study of the schools of New York City.¹

Among the State institutions maintained at Montevideo are two excellent normal schools, one for men and the other for women, a school of arts and trades, military college, and the university.

In the rural districts of Uruguay primary education is in a backward state. A special investigation made in 1906 drew attention to the deplorable lack of suitable schoolhouses throughout the country and the bad condition of many that were in use. As a consequence of this revelation, above \$1,000,000 were appropriated by the legislature for new buildings and the improvement of the old, and at the same time a service of school inspection was organized. The interest thus aroused in the condition of the schools was stimulated by the census of 1909, which showed that 33 per cent of the people above 6 years of age were illiterate, or considering the native Uruguayans, above 30 per cent. Efforts were at once made for the enforcement of the compulsory education law and for increasing the provision of schools. Nearly one-half the entire population is rural and widely distributed, the density of population being only 15 to the square mile, about the same as in Texas and Nebraska. It is proposed to establish a school within reach of every child of school age living in the country. Measures have also been taken to raise the standard of qualification for rural teachers who have generally little or no training and are ignorant of modern ideals and methods of education. As a means of arousing interest in these matters, the Government has recently sent a select company of women teachers to the United States, with instruction to familiarize themselves with the organization of primary schools, their methods, and in particular with the conduct of manual training.

The endeavor to promote the general diffusion of elementary education is intimately related to measures for improving rural industries. The most important measure bearing directly upon this purpose is a law, passed in the session of 1910, providing for the establishment of six agricultural experiment stations, with a maximum of 2,500 acres of land and an appropriation of \$20,845 for salaries and general operating expenses for each station. For the expenses of expropriation, construction, and installation, the maximum sum of \$827,000 was provided, and the entire work was placed in charge of an inspector general at an annual salary of \$4,963.

Elaborate arrangements are making for expositions to be held in 1913 for the exploitation of the natural resources of the country. Among the number is an exposition to be held at Montevideo in April, under the auspices of the Rural Association of Uruguay,

¹ Anales de Instrucción Primaria, Año IX, Tomo X, Nos. 1-12. Abril de 1911-Marzo de 1912.

which will be devoted to agricultural products, machinery, etc. A Government appropriation has been secured for this enterprise.

The legislative appropriation for the service of public instruction amounted in 1911-12 to 3,100,725 pesos (\$3,206,150), which was nearly one-tenth the entire budget.

VENEZUELA.

The Government of Venezuela has just entered upon the work of reorganizing the system of public instruction, after carefully matured plans. As a preliminary measure, Dr. Guillermo Todd, one of the leading professors of secondary education in the country, was commissioned to make extensive investigations in the United States with a view to advising as to reform measures, and soon after his return to Venezuela in 1911, was appointed special inspector of the colleges and Federal schools of the country and invested with broad advisory functions. These pertain to the means of securing the development of primary instruction in the municipalities; the development of modern programs for the colleges and schools; the selection of suitable illustrative material; the examination and promotion of pupils from grade to grade; personal instruction to teachers with respect to modern ideas and methods in education; advice as to textbooks for different grades of schools; the establishment of a pedagogical library and museum; close cooperation with the professors of the normal school, with reference both to the organization and conduct of that institution; and to the preparation of a manual similar to those in standard use in Europe and America, which will serve as a model for graduates of the institution in the ultimate conduct of their own schools.

In the report embodying the results of his investigations Dr. Todd dwells particularly upon the importance of normal schools as the essential factor in a system of public instruction. Those of his own country, he explains, are little more than repetition schools wanting in professional instruction and in means for the practical application of pedagogic principles. He expresses the confident belief, however, that his recommendations as to these institutions will command the support of the minister, since on account of his education in Europe and his familiarity with the conditions of progress abroad he is able to appreciate their full force. The normal schools of the United States and Germany are referred to by Dr. Todd as models in respect to the scope of their training and their material resources. He cites also the opinion of a "distinguished foreigner" who had made a recent tour in the Latin-American States and who was deeply

impressed by the fine buildings and ample equipments of the normal schools of Argentina and Uruguay.

In view of this report, measures have already been adopted by the Government for the establishment of a model institution for training teachers, and an appropriation equivalent to \$14,985 has been made for the purchase of modern school furniture for graded schools and an additional sum of nearly \$6,000 for the purchase of illustrative material. The interests of industry and trade will be promoted by Government commercial schools in the leading cities and by a school of arts and trades for women to be established in Caracas. An appropriation has also been made for promoting agricultural education and plans have been formed for the equipment of a central agricultural school and experiment station.

The backward condition of popular education in the Latin-American States is in striking contrast to the development of university education and of the colleges preparatory to the former. This subject is exhaustively treated in a bulletin recently published by this office.¹

¹ Bulletin, 1912, No. 30, Latin American Universities and Special Schools, by Dr. Edgar Ewing Brandon, vice president of Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

CHAPTER XVIII.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

CONTENTS.

- England and Wales: Brief conspectus of the system of public elementary schools.—Statistics.—Current movements.—School attendance.—Teachers: Number; financial status.—Welfare work and medical inspection: The function of the board of education; state of medical inspection; extension of medical service to juvenile workers; auxiliary agencies.—Provision for vocational training.—Agencies for rural uplift.—Expanding scope of the State system.
- Scotland: Statistical summary of elementary and secondary schools.—Detailed statistics of primary and higher-grade schools.—Measures for prolonging school attendance: Supplementary classes; continuation classes.—Central institutions.
- Ireland: System of national education.—Statistics for 1910–11.—The rural uplift movement.—The department of agriculture and technical instruction.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

SYSTEM OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The public elementary schools of England and Wales are administered in accordance with the education act of 1902, which abolished the former school boards and placed the schools under the charge of the local authorities (county and borough councils), and admitted private schools (chiefly parochial) to share in the local taxes, although under private management. Schools are supervised by local committees, but are subject to Government inspection. In 1911 there were 21,294 ordinary elementary schools, of which 8,377 were council (public) schools, with accommodation for 4,012,544 children, and 12,917 were voluntary (private), with accommodation for 2,839,576 children. Enrollment, 6,044,284, or 16.7 per cent of the population; teachers, men, 42,573; women, 127,842; total, 170,415.

Statistics of State-aided elementary schools, 1911.¹

Classes.	Number.	Accommodation.	Enrollment.
1. Ordinary public elementary schools:			
(a) Maintained by local education authorities.....	20,780	6,789,741	
(b) Not maintained by local education authorities.....	66	17,799	6,030,718
2. Higher elementary schools.....	47	12,447	8,852
3. "Certified efficient" schools.....	65	7,598	4,714
4. Certified schools for blind children.....	38	2,255	1,782
5. Certified schools for deaf children.....	50	4,265	3,666
6. Certified schools for mentally defective children:			
(a) Certified day schools.....	165	11,811	11,853
(b) Certified boarding schools.....	7	580	400
7. Certified schools for physically defective children:			
(a) Certified day schools.....	62	4,614	4,327
(b) Certified boarding schools.....	8	492	386
8. Certified boarding schools for epileptic children.....	6	518	377
Total.....	21,294	6,852,120	6,067,075

¹ Board of education. Statistics of public education in England and Wales, pt. 1. Educational statistics, 1910–11, p. 15.

² Of these, 12,734 schools, with accommodation for 2,808,795 children, are "voluntary" schools that have accepted public supervision.

Summary of current accounts of local education authorities, year ending Mar. 31, 1911.¹

Class.	Amount.	United States equivalent.
Income:		
Elementary education.....	£24,170,821	\$117,470,190
Higher education.....	4,665,968	22,670,604
Expenditure:		
Elementary education.....	24,087,318	117,046,869
Higher education.....	4,658,623	22,640,908

Percentage of total income from various sources.

Sources of income.	Elementary education.	Higher education.
Parliamentary grants.....	47.7	39.0
Rates (local taxes) and municipal funds.....	50.5	25.8
Other local sources.....	1.8	235.2

¹ Board of education. Statistics of public education for England and Wales, pt. 2. Financial Statistics, 1910-11-12, pp. 22, 23, 222-223.

² Derived chiefly from endowments and fees.

CURRENT MOVEMENTS.

The present year (1912) promises to bring to a close the third period in the history of the State-aided system of elementary education in England and Wales, which dates from the passage of the education act of 1902; for while as yet no measure embodying liberal policies in respect to this matter has been submitted, the leaders of the Government are publicly committed to the support of such a measure. Notwithstanding continued opposition to the act of 1902, its benefits are fully recognized, and its best features will undoubtedly be preserved in a new education act. Under the county system and the extension of local taxes to inspected private (parochial) schools, these have been raised to the level of the public schools, a change of enormous importance in rural districts, which have no other provision; further, the elementary schools have been brought into closer relations with the secondary and technical schools of the country. Meanwhile, by reason of supplementary measures, in particular the act of 1906,¹ providing for the supply of food to school children, and the act of 1907,² increasing the administrative scope of local education authorities, the school system has become the medium for many services directed to the general welfare of the young.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

The school provision of the country is practically complete, the accommodation being slightly in excess of the estimated demand. In

¹ Provisions of Meals Act, 1906.

² Education (administrative provisions) Act, 1907.

large cities the movement of population may at any time cause a deficiency of places in one section, even while there is excess in another; in London, for instance, this is a constantly recurring difficulty, unavoidable but temporary. The enrollment in all classes of public elementary schools for the latest year reported (1910-11) was 6,067,075; of this number 27,791 were in schools for the deaf, the blind, and other defectives, leaving in schools for normal children 6,044,284, equivalent to 16.7 per cent of the total population (36,075,269). The average enrollment was 6,036,944, and on this number an average attendance of 89 per cent was maintained. Enrollment in the public elementary schools has declined since 1909 on account of the exclusion of children under 5 years of age, the withdrawal of children above 12, and the effort to draw off the most promising children into secondary schools. The average attendance, on the contrary, steadily increases; for 1912 it is estimated at 5,550,000, or 90 per cent of the enrollment. It appears, therefore, that school attendance for the time actually required is in a fairly satisfactory condition.

The steady approach to a common limit for obligatory school attendance is shown by the fact that 320 local authorities out of 327 have adopted by-laws covering the full time—i. e., 5 to 14 years of age—authorized by the education law. Unfortunately, however, the provisions for partial and total exemption are many and various; so that a large proportion of pupils cease to attend school at 12 years of age and drift into casual occupations or into idleness and vagrancy. The school-attendance bill introduced during the current session of Parliament was intended to correct this evil. It provided uniform conditions for exemption, as follows: A child must satisfy the authority that he (*a*) has attained the age of 13 years, and (*b*) is about to enter into some employment which will, in the opinion of the authority, be beneficial to him. The measure had strong support, but failed to get through the slow course of parliamentary procedure.

TEACHERS.

The number of teachers of all grades employed in the schools in 1911 was 156,266, a decline of 3,248 in two years. This decrease is offset by improvement in professional competency. The number of trained certificated teachers rose from 47,064 in 1909 to 52,593 in 1911. The number who without training succeeded in passing at least the lower certificate examination increased in the same time from 39,672 to 40,351. In other words, one-third of the teachers had been specially trained for their work, an additional one-fourth had passed an easy examination, while a little less than half the force had no assured qualification for the work of teaching.

The status of the elementary teachers has been somewhat improved by the new superannuation act, which was the only one of several education bills introduced into Parliament during the session of 1911-12 that was placed upon the statute book. This measure doubles the present rate of allowance, namely, 10s., for each year of recorded service; it also increases by 50 per cent the rates of £1 for men and 13s. 4d. for women at which disablement allowances are calculated in respect of each year of service after the first 10 years. The contributions of men teachers to the deferred-annuity fund are increased from £3 10s. to £3 12s. per annum; the future rates of contributions for both men and women teachers are made fixed and unchangeable. The act comprises a scheme of superannuation for other than elementary teachers—i. e., secondary and technical teachers—in accordance with regulations that have yet to be worked out. A special fund from the treasury, equivalent to a perpetual annuity of £200,000, was placed at the disposal of the minister for the purposes of this act.

In this connection it may be noted that the board of education has introduced a four years' course in the training colleges for teachers, which, for the present at least, will be optional. Experience has shown that a three years' course, with the required practice, is not sufficient time for the students to prepare adequately either for the final examination or for the work which they are to enter. The optional course has been made attractive by pecuniary arrangements which secure to the men students who live at the college hostel £35 (\$175) a year, instead of the £30 (\$150) at present received; and to the women students £25 (\$125), instead of the present £15 (\$75).

The significant fact in all these arrangements is the sympathetic attitude of the present education department toward elementary school-teachers. It remains true, however, that appointments and salaries are all in the hands of local authorities, and the complaint is made that many of these authorities are indifferent in the matter and offer very meager salaries. In his speech on the budget estimates Mr. Pease said:

I stood almost aghast when I realized what the position was when I came to my present position. The average salary of an elementary school-teacher was £145 (\$725) for men and £99 (\$495) for women.

In the large cities, which vie with each other to secure the best teachers, the average salary is much higher; this consideration, however, is offset by the still lower average in small towns and rural districts.

In addition to the efforts for improving the financial prospects of the teachers, the education department during the current year has established the long-desired teachers' registration council. This body is, first of all, to determine the conditions upon which teachers shall

be placed on the register; and as all teachers are included, whether elementary or secondary, the register will fix the standard for professional recognition.

WELFARE WORK AND MEDICAL INSPECTION.

The entire life of the children of the humbler classes has become a matter of public concern, through the operation of the act of 1906 providing for the supply of meals to needy children attending public elementary schools, and the act of 1907, making it the duty of the local councils to provide for the medical inspection of school children and authorizing the use of public funds for the recreation and physical training of pupils. The general direction of these new activities and duties is committed to the board of education, and thus from the outset means have been provided for unifying and equalizing the work throughout the Kingdom. The board of education has regarded the provision for the medical inspection of schools as part of a general movement, including also the act of 1906, and hence in plans for the service of medical inspection its relations to other forms of welfare work have been kept in view.

In 1907 a medical department was organized in the board, and Dr. George Newman was appointed chief medical officer. This appointment secured for the direction of the service a man eminent in the field of bacteriological research, an authority on subjects of hygiene and public health and experienced also in the practical duties of a medical officer. Associated with Dr. Newman was Dr. Alfred Eichholz, member of the staff of Government inspectors, and subsequently the department was strengthened by the addition of Dr. Janet Mary Campbell, formerly in the service of the London County Council, and Dr. Henry Crowley, formerly medical officer at Bradford. The four reports of the chief medical officer already issued are replete with information and suggestions valuable to all persons engaged in the service of public health and sanitation. In his third report (covering 1910), Dr. Newman asserts in emphatic terms the national importance of the service with which he is charged. On this subject he says:

The conditions of life, both in respect of personal hygiene and of environment, which result in a high mortality among infants under 1 year of age, lead at the same time to a high degree of sickness and disablement among children of school age, and in the same way, and probably in even greater degree, sickness and disease of children lead to disease and disablement among adolescents and adults.

The whole business, both of inspection and treatment of children, must be viewed as an undertaking of absolute necessity, if the health and physical fitness of the Nation is first to be secured and then maintained.

While approaching this subject with great professional experience and enthusiasm, Dr. Newman recognizes that these qualities alone will not suffice for an efficient enforcement of the law. "No amount of medical skill, experience, and industry," he says, "can of itself avail to do what is requisite without a large measure of administrative ability."

In England, as he explains:

Successful administration is dependent upon an effective coordination between all the local authorities concerned with health questions in an area, and upon a genuine and intimate cooperation between their officers, medical men, health visitors, school nurses, teachers, and attendance officers. Secondly, the different branches of school medical work need to be unified under the school medical officer.

The branches which should thus be unified are:

Medical inspection, medical treatment, the sanitation of schools, the provision and management of special schools for the defective, physical training, and the feeding of school children. These six activities are but parts of one undertaking in behalf of the children, and the full value and effect of these contributory factors can only be secured as they are corelated and associated together in each area.¹

THE FUNCTION OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The duties thrown upon the board of education in respect to the service of medical inspection being of a purely advisory nature, the medical department began its work by the issue of circulars to the local authorities responsible for carrying out the provisions of the law. The scope and practical spirit of these circulars are clearly indicated by the subjects of which they treat, namely: Organization of the local service (Circular 576); schedule of medical inspection (582); scope of the service (596); form of reports (728).

Although the board of education is chiefly an advisory body, it has a compelling authority in regard to medical inspection through the control of conditions upon which the parliamentary grants for elementary education are disbursed. Immediately upon the passage of the law authorizing the service, certain conditions pertaining to it were embodied in the annual code, or body of regulations, with which a school must comply in order to secure a share of the grant.

The sections of the code for 1912 pertaining to this matter are as follows:

Satisfactory provision must be made for the medical inspection of children attending the school in accordance with section 13 (1) (b) of the Education (administrative provisions) Act, 1907. (Sec. 25 c.)

The board must be satisfied that provision has been made for the school *in the year*, and of all children who are expected to leave school *in the year—the year in each case being the 12 months ending on the 31st of July*. (Sec. 58 b.)

¹An. rep. for 1910 of chief medical officer of the bd. of educ. (issued in 1911), pp. 1-2.

STATE OF MEDICAL INSPECTION.

From the report of the medical officer for 1911¹ it appears that the schedule of medical inspection issued by the board has been adopted by 302 out of the 317 local authorities responsible for the execution of the law. These authorities reported for the schools under their control an average attendance in 1911 of 5,371,662 pupils. According to the official basis of estimate, the number of children subject to medical inspection—namely, those just entering and just leaving school—was 1,365,000. The “special cases,” about 250,000, would bring the total to one and a half millions. The services of 943 medical officers were required, including 74 women working in 47 different areas. Reports of the service were received at the central office from all the local offices, as required by law.

In connection with the medical inspection, 212 local education authorities have appointed nurses or health visitors; the number of these auxiliary assistants for the year was 353, of whom 74 gave their entire time to the work.

The pressing need of medical inspection is shown by the mere summary of conditions disclosed in the last year. Of the children attending the schools, 10 per cent had defective eyesight, 4 per cent defective hearing, 7 per cent adenoids or enlarged tonsils, 40 per cent decayed teeth, 38 per cent were suffering from utter neglect of cleanliness, 1 per cent were tuberculous, and nearly 2 per cent had heart disease. Seventy-two authorities were giving free spectacles to children needing them, 22 authorities made provision for treating children in hospitals, and 48 authorities had established free clinics.

Special interest attaches to the report of the medical inspection in London on account of the vast population to be dealt with and also because the London council did not immediately comply with the requirements of the board. The differences between the two bodies having ceased, the work is proceeding in accordance with the code conditions. Decided changes are therefore taking place in the system of inspection that has been long maintained in the metropolis.

The summary for London shows—

that medical inspection of some kind was carried out in 393 schools (in a total of 925) during the year (1910-11), and that 172,619 children were examined, of whom 42,886 were entrants and leavers as defined in the code, 23,214 were children between 8 and 9, and 5,812 were “specials” referred for medical examination by the teachers.

The year under review not only saw the system of medical inspection of school children in practical operation in every administrative area, but gave new and very convincing proof of the determination of the Government in this matter by a grant specifically assigned to

¹ Issued by the board of education, 1912.

the work. The amount of this grant, £60,000 (\$292,000), is not large and the regulations for its distribution are not yet definitely determined, but from the present outlook it is certain that the amount will be increased as the demand arises. It is evident also that the health care work will not be restricted to the perfunctory examination of school children as they enter and pass out of school; measures will be taken to carry the benefits of the service into humble homes, to stimulate, improve, and organize parental cooperation in the effort to safeguard the public health by insuring that of the rising generations. This form of effort is reenforced by the provisions of the national insurance act relative to allowance for the sick, sanatoria for consumptives, etc. One of the chief medical authorities of the Kingdom declares that the full development of that act depends upon the health of the children at the public elementary schools.¹ The ultimate hope of national health lies in the fact that the typical child "attending school from 5 to 14 is under continuous supervision by one authority."

AUXILIARY AGENCIES.

The complement of such supervision is found in the various remedial agencies which had been provided in a few places even before the Government moved in the matter.

Among these agencies are open-air schools, playground classes, and country schools for town children, which counteract the enfeebling influences of city life and indoor confinement.

Arrangements are made for open-air classes in several ways. Of these the simplest is that of utilizing a selected classroom for the purpose. In such cases the window space is greatly extended, in order to provide a constant flow of fresh air, and the number of children restricted to half the number in an ordinary classroom. The children are selected by the medical inspector. This experiment has worked so well in Monmouthshire that the county education committee recommend that in plans for new schools a special open-air classroom should be included.

A second method is that of conducting classes in the playgrounds. The London authorities during the year maintained 50 such classes in session from April to September. Similar classes have been conducted in London in the playgrounds of schools for the defective, i. e., the blind and the deaf-mute, under the immediate supervision of a medical officer of health.

The experiment of sending children out from congested districts of large cities to country places for the purpose of education and health was continued during the year by public or private agencies centered

¹ The Nation's Children; Juvenile Health and the Insurance Act, by Dr. Christopher Addison, M. P., in Daily News (London), Feb. 8, 1912.

in London and five other cities. With few exceptions, the country schools referred to have been in operation for two or three years.¹

THE PROVISION OF MEALS.

The main purpose of the supply of meals at public expense, as provided for by the act of 1906, is to insure that no child shall fail through lack of food to profit from the provision made by the State for its education. On the relation between this provision and the medical inspection authorized by the act of 1907 the chief medical officer says:

It is certain that malnutrition and physical defects are closely associated and react upon each other, but it is difficult to determine their exact relation in each child or to say in what degree malnutrition causes the other physical evils. Merely to increase the supply of food would in many cases not solve the complex problem of the individual child, although in many cases lack of food lies at the root of the mischief. I am convinced that any work which a local education authority can usefully do to combat malnutrition must be done as a branch of their medical work; and that on grounds of service as well as of convenience the provision of meals must, as far as possible, be effectively connected with the machinery of the school medical service.

From a tabulated summary relating to the supply of meals at public expense, it appears that in 1910-11, of the 322 local administrative areas in England and Wales, 117, including 54 counties, 35 boroughs, and 28 urban districts, made provision for feeding children. The expenditure brought upon the local taxes varied greatly, falling as low as £3 (\$15) in the small borough of Bury St. Edmunds and reached its maximum, £48,126 (\$234,892), in London. The amount claimed from the local tax was generally at the rate of half a penny in the pound. The total number of meals furnished to school children in 1910-11 by local authorities outside of London was 7,634,395. The total for London was 8,487,824. On an average the London authorities fed 41,672 children every week.

The final outcome of this service as it appears to Dr. Newman is significant. On this subject he says:

In anything like the social and economic conditions which now prevail, the work which the local education authority can do in directly preventing and remedying the evils of malnutrition has somewhat definite limits. The proper and sufficient feeding of the child is primarily the function of the home, and it is to the gradual improvement of the home that local education authorities must look for relief from the special difficulties which confront them through the malnutrition of the child. To the agencies which are working in that direction local education authorities can themselves contribute materially by bringing into the home, through their own schools and classes and through their medical and nursing services, knowledge of the best ways of feeding and caring for children.²

¹ See report of the chief medical officer for 1910, pp. 245-258, 303-313; report for 1911, pp. 269-286, 317-332.

² Report for 1910, p. 258.

EXTENSION OF MEDICAL SERVICE TO JUVENILE WORKERS.

The basis for public action in respect to safeguarding young people who are early thrust into industries is provided by the act of November 28, 1910, which authorized the education authorities to give assistance to boys and girls under 17 years of age in securing employment. For this purpose employment committees advisory to the education authorities are appointed and juvenile labor bureaus established. Through these agencies attention has been called to the physical condition of the boys and girls seeking employment, which is found to have a very important bearing upon their success.¹ Already in some cities medical inspection is maintained over school children employed out of school hours or under partial exemption, and plans are considered for extending the inspection to young people above 14 years of age who are at work in factories. Such a plan has already been carried out at Dewsbury, where the school medical officer is also the certifying factory surgeon. The London County Council in its capacity as education authority has made arrangements whereby school children placed in employment may be kept under supervision until 18 years of age. Similar arrangements have also been made by the Birmingham authorities. Some idea of the magnitude of this proposed work may be formed from the fact that between 2,500 and 3,000 children were placed in employment by the advisory committees every week during the past year.

The organization and extension of welfare work is the chief feature of the current record of elementary education in England. In respect to this service England has suddenly taken a foremost place among nations. The significant lesson of this achievement, reiterated by the chief medical officer, is that of the close relation of the various forms of welfare work and their dependence upon professional skill and knowledge. This lesson is emphasized by the action of the London council, which is responsible for the largest school population in the world comprised under one authority. In the reorganization of the work of medical inspection the London council has placed the medical inspection of children, which was formerly dealt with by the public health department, and the work of medical treatment, which devolved upon the education department, under the sole control of the chief medical officer of the county.

PROVISION FOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

The problem of vocational training engages great attention in manufacturing and commercial centers of England, but no marked advance has been made during the year toward its adequate solution.

¹ See Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1912, No. 11, "Current Educational Topics: Juvenile labor bureaus and vocational guidance in Great Britain."

The higher orders of technical training, as experience shows, are more readily secured than that elementary provision which prepares the great body of laborers for industry, opportunity, and good citizenship. The lack of agencies for the continued training of children beyond the primary school is declared by Mr. Pease, president of the board of education, to be "the great blot on the English system." The drop in school attendance of children above 12 years of age is alarming. More than one-third leave by the time they are 13; last year the pupils between the ages of 14 and 15 numbered only 36,000, being one-sixth the number between the ages of 12 and 13. It is estimated that 6 out of 7 children never appear in school after reaching the age of 15. "At any rate," says the minister, "the proportion of individuals who are educated only up to the age of 14 is excessive, and enormous sums of this country's money are being wasted because we have no proper system of continuing the education of our young people."

The existing agencies for vocational training available for those who make up the great industrial army consists of evening technical schools, trade schools, day and evening, and tutorial classes conducted under the combined auspices of the universities and the Workers' Educational Association. The trade schools and technical classes serve in the main those who are already at work. The tutorial classes are not vocational, but have a broader educational aim. They are due to the efforts of workingmen themselves for the development, social and civic, of their own class. The vocational problem is quite different, but here again the help of the workers and also that of the employers of labor is essential, and the most hopeful sign in respect to this matter is the recent action of these two factors.

The Trades-Union Congress, at its annual meeting in September, unanimously adopted a resolution embodying an elaborate scheme of education and nurture for children, of which one clause is as follows:

That secondary and technical education be an essential part of every child's education, and secure by such a reform and extension of the scholarship system as will place a maintenance scholarship within the reach of every child, and thus make it possible for all children to be full-time day pupils up to the age of 16.

On the part of employers, the example of the North Eastern Railway Co. may be cited. They send some of their young people to the Armstrong College, at Newcastle, and not only pay their fees, but also their wages while they are attending technical classes. In this matter the company is doing voluntarily what several German States are obliging employers to do, and what, it is urged, England must soon require by law.

In regard to provision for the higher orders of technical training the industrial centers of the Kingdom—Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, etc.—are making wonderful strides by the establishment of municipal technical schools, which open a way from the higher elementary schools to the provincial universities, with which the technical schools are in close relation.

AGENCIES FOR RURAL UPLIFT.

The establishment of continuation schools fitted to the needs of the rural population as a whole progresses very slowly. The report of the Rural Education Conference, published in May, 1911, dealt particularly with this condition, and suggested a type of higher grade rural school as one means of improvement. The report of the conference, issued in November, 1911, deals with the consolidation of rural elementary schools, and as a result of extensive investigation expresses approval of the principle of consolidation, urges its adoption in suitable localities, and a special grant from the Government to aid in such experiments. The conference has issued two reports during the current year. The first, dated February 27, 1912, embodies the results of an inquiry into the courses of study for agricultural colleges, and the latest, bearing date June 13, 1912, treats of the co-ordination of the various agencies engaged in the work. Thus, while the county authorities almost without exception have provided for a system of agricultural education, the conference supplies expert opinions and directions to guide in the choice and conduct of agencies.

The elementary stages of training for rural industries as at present developed in England comprise gardening, which is taught in 48 of the 49 county areas in England, and in 11 of the 13 in Wales. About 30,000 pupils take the subject. Dairying as a subject in elementary schools has only 180 pupils, chiefly girls. The teaching of domestic economy, including practical work in sewing, cooking, and other household arts, is required in all the schools for girls above the lowest or infant grade. The number of pupils reported in cookery classes in 1911 was about 320,000, and in laundry work 120,000. Of the total more than one-third were in schools outside of London and the other large cities. This work, which is increasing year by year, is effecting great improvement in the home life of rural communities.

The county system of agricultural education¹ has made progress during the year. This provision is only one feature of a broad policy which includes the scheme of small holdings, under the act of 1907, improved rural housing and sanitation, reafforestation, and

¹ See Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1911, vol. 1, Ch. X, pp. 382-385.

scientific farming. These projects are promoted by the farm schools and colleges of agriculture, whose effects are seen in the increased output of small farms and the spirit excited in owners and land agents. The schools and colleges which are also supplying to England a body of experts for the growing services of agricultural research, have the benefit of the treasury grant for agricultural education and research, amounting in 1912 to £18,840 (\$89,562).

The welfare activities covered by the latest report of the chief medical officer (1911) include measures for extending the benefits of public care and supervision to children below and above the school age. Among these measures must be included provision for teaching infant care, described as "mother craft." As a consequence of a memorandum on the teaching of infant care and management in public elementary schools,¹ such instruction is rapidly becoming a part of the ordinary school course for girls and of the professional training for teachers. In the opinion of the medical officer, continuation classes and schools for teaching infant care and child hygiene to both mothers and girls are even more desirable. Experiments of this kind are reported from several towns, and in the county of Derbyshire an organizer has been appointed to arrange and supervise the teaching of home management, personal hygiene, etc. As yet no public authority has definite responsibilities in regard to these matters, beyond the immediate province of the school, but there is a growing recognition of the need of such provision.

EXPANDING SCOPE OF THE STATE SYSTEM.

The movement for vocational education in England is closely related to the upward expansion of the system by subsidizing private secondary schools which accept official inspection, and by the continuance of the work formerly conducted by the science and art department.

The number of private schools coming into the arrangement is steadily increasing, and although the system does not accord with the rising spirit of democracy, it has turned to public service many endowments which were practically running to waste.

The regulations issued by the department during the year for grant-aided technical institutions bring to an end the famous South Kensington system, with its elaborate lists of specific subjects from which students might choose, its syllabi for guidance and control, and its official examinations. The specific subjects are replaced by a grouped course arranged in junior, senior, and advanced sections.

¹ Board of Education, Circular 758, 1910.

Only two examinations are required in the course, and these may be conducted by the institutions themselves with the cooperation of an official examiner. Thus, throughout the system there is the evident purpose to meet the needs of students rather than to maintain traditional standards.

The present scope of the State-aided system is summed up in substance by the minister as follows:

In addition to the 5,500,000 children in average attendance at elementary schools there are 982 inspected secondary schools, with 170,700 pupils; 84 technical colleges, with nearly 13,000 students; and in various technical classes throughout the country about 830,000 pupils. In addition to these institutions, all of which are aided from the public treasury, the education department dispenses grants to 22 universities and other higher institutions. Estimates submitted by Mr. Pease for the support of this system for 1912, so far as it is borne by the Government, amounted to £14,500,000 (\$70,470,000). Of this sum, £13,750,000 (\$66,825,000) was distributed in grants in one form or other, and £159,000 (\$772,740) in pensions for elementary teachers. The balance was required for the administrative work of the board of education.

SCOTLAND.

Scotland has an advantage over England in the unity of its educational system, with the consequent coordination of all grades and classes of institutions and the maintenance of the open door from the elementary school to the university, which was the boast of the old parish system.

The following statistics show the different classes of schools below the university plane that are supported or fostered by public funds:

Classes of schools.	Enrollment in 1911.	Normal ages.
Elementary:		
Primary.....	818,706	5-14
Higher grade.....	26,349	12-16
Total.....	845,055	
Continuation classes.....	137,180	14
Secondary and intermediate.....	21,008	12-18 or 12-16
Central institutions.....	16,849	12-16
Training colleges for teachers.....	2,669	16-18

Statistics of primary and higher grade schools.¹

Enrollment-----	845,055	Current expenditure:	
Average attendance-----	755,988	For board schools -----	£3,587,712
Per cent of enrollment-----	89.46	For voluntary schools -----	£282,622
Teachers:		Total -----	£3,870,334
Men-----	5,309	United States equivalent-----	\$18,809,823
Women-----	14,833	Per capita of enrollment-----	\$22.25
Total-----	20,142		

The primary and higher grade schools correspond to the elementary schools of England; their enrollment (845,055) was equivalent to 17½ per cent of the population. The tendency to enter children at the earliest statutory age, 5 years, is encouraged by the school authorities, and it is noted with satisfaction that 20 per cent of the pupils are below 7 years of age; at the same time efforts are made to continue the attendance of children at school after the upper statutory limit, i. e., 14 years, is reached. These efforts are promoted by the close coordination of the different classes of schools; as indicated by the normal age limits, pupils may pass from the ordinary primary schools into the higher grade schools or the secondary schools at 12 years of age, or may complete the primary school course and continue their studies in continuation classes.

MEASURES FOR PROLONGING SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

Apart from the success of the efforts to get all the children under instruction, the current events of greatest interest in Scotland relate to the new powers conferred upon the school boards by the education act of 1908. This act authorized the boards to make attendance compulsory at continuation schools, and, further, to provide for the physical and social improvement of the school children. The system of continued education begins in the ordinary schools with the supplementary classes, which lead to the continuation school and thence to higher institutions.

SUPPLEMENTARY CLASSES.

The supplementary classes have vitalized the work of the primary schools by providing special facilities for the more capable pupils without breaking up the unity of the lower classes. The classes are parallel with the last two years of the regular course, but follow special programs with vocational ends in view, according to local conditions.² Children are transferred from the regular to the

¹ Report of the committee of the Privy Council on Education in Scotland, 1911-12 (issued June 7, 1912).

² Educ. Dept., Circ. 374, Feb., 1903.

supplementary classes upon examination and the record of previous work; special teachers are employed, and thus while backward and mediocre pupils pursue the elementary course to the end, the more capable children get the full benefit of the school provision.¹

The number of pupils approved for transfer to supplementary classes in 1911 was 59,406, and the special grants allowed for the same were claimed on an average attendance of 47,565 in 2,000 schools out of the total, 3,369. These figures are emphasized by the reports of the Government inspectors.

The inspector for the Western Division (population 2,216,288) reports for Glasgow 56 supplementary courses, with 3,146 pupils, which number he hopes to see increased shortly to 5,000 or 6,000. Provision is made for instructing the boys and girls separately, with a view of giving the girls training in cookery and the domestic arts, mending garments, nursing children and the sick, housekeeping, with advice regarding the purchase of household necessities, which subjects, the inspector observes, are naturally taught by a woman only.

The inspector for the Southern Division (population 1,229,983) gives the following statistics showing the character and growth of the supplementary classes in one district, population 135,062.

Pupils in supplementary classes.

Years.	Cookery.	Laundry.	Practical household economy.	Dress- making.	Wood- work.	Garden- ing.	Practical science.
1908-9.....	51	29	21	9	37	11	2
1909-10.....	61	33	22	7	45	15	
1910-11.....	69	40	26	7	57	21	

The inspector observes that—

The teaching of these subjects is usually in the hands of special teachers, and follows recognized and well-defined lines. An exception to this rule is gardening, for which a special teacher is not available. The gardens have, however, all been laid out under the supervision of either the West or the East of Scotland College of Agriculture, and the officers of one or other of the colleges have given advice as to syllabuses of instruction.

Highland Division.—According to the inspector the subjects which have up till now figured less frequently in supplementary courses than one could wish are branches like cookery, laundry work, wood-work, and school gardening. Their introduction into the smaller schools has been retarded by various causes, of which the principal are the reluctance of boards to face the initial expense, the want of

¹ For details of the organization of these classes, see Rep. Commis. of Educ., Ch. X, v. 1, 1911, pp. 372-377.

specially qualified teachers, and also the prejudice not infrequently entertained with regard to these branches by the public or by school managers. This attitude, however, is now becoming less common, nor, indeed, was it at any time universal. Further, school boards are now combining to maintain a special teacher, which reduces the cost.

CONTINUATION CLASSES.

Continuation classes are regulated by a special code applicable to either day or evening sessions. School boards may enact by-laws making attendance at such classes obligatory up to the age of 17 years. For 1911-12, 603 authorities reported classes of this kind in 1,150 centers, an increase of 34 over the previous year, when the number of pupils was 137,180. Sixteen school boards have framed compulsory by-laws requiring attendance upon the continuation classes, but the boards, as a rule, are moving very slowly in this respect, preferring rather to excite an interest in the classes by rendering them practically effective.

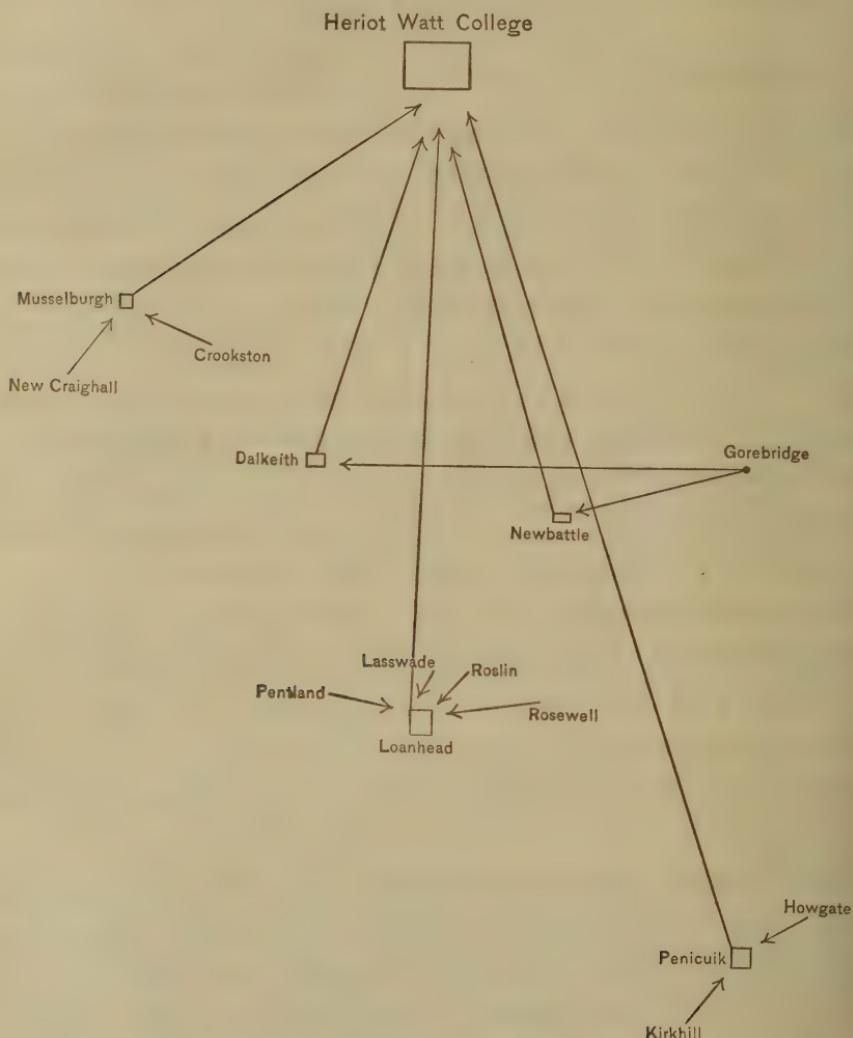
The courses of study for continuation classes are arranged in four divisions, of which the first is for the completion of general elementary education; of the remainder two are specialized courses, either theoretical or strictly trade and technical, such as bookbinding, electrical engineering, etc.; the fourth course comprises subjects of varied character, i. e., dressmaking, military drill, repoussé work, etc.

Pupils who complete the full three years' course in the continuation classes are prepared for admission to the central institutions, which form the crown of the system of practical education as distinguished from the system of liberal education. The latter shows no decline by reason of the new provision which has arisen in response to new conditions and demands that have simply enlarged and enriched the field for the exercise of the highest orders of training and talent.

The 16 central institutions are distinctively technical in character; they are aided by Government grants, subject to close supervision, conveniently placed to meet the requirements of the entire country, and have such relations with the universities that students, if they desire, may eventually complete their studies in the latter and secure a full degree. Naturally, technical and trade courses have been most highly developed both in the continuation classes and in the central institutions, but agriculture is engaging more and more attention.

The admirable working of the county systems in England has led to similar measures in the Northern Division of the United Kingdom. Schemes recently formed for the extension of the work of agricultural colleges to the farming people include the appointment of a college organizer for each county or group of counties comprised in

the college area, dairy and poultry instructresses, and, in the case of the crofting districts comprised in the area of the Aberdeen College, the appointment of special crofter instructors. The formation of local advisory committees to assist the staffs of the colleges in the organization of the extension work is a feature of the schemes.



The relation of the central institutions to the continuation classes and the local schools from which their students are drawn is illustrated by the accompanying diagram, which pertains to the county of Midlothian. The centers of continuation classes are represented by the small parallelograms; to these centers pupils are drawn from the surrounding districts, arrangements being made for conveying pupils who live at great distance from the class. The central institution, Heriot-Watt College, is one of the most important in the Kingdom.

The following is a list of the central institutions at work in 1911-12:

- Aberdeen and North of Scotland College of Agriculture.
- Aberdeen, Robert Gordon's Technical College.
- Dundee Technical College and School of Art.
- Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Training.
- Edinburgh and East of Scotland College of Agriculture.
- Edinburgh College of Art.
- Edinburgh, Heriot-Watt College.
- Edinburgh, Royal (Dick) Veterinary College.
- Edinburgh School of Cookery and Domestic Economy.
- Glasgow and West of Scotland College of Domestic Science.
- Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College.
- Glasgow Athenæum Commercial College.
- Glasgow School of Art.
- Glasgow Veterinary College.
- Leith Nautical College.
- The West of Scotland Agricultural College.

WELFARE WORK.

The general welfare work in behalf of children is not so highly developed in Scotland as in England; a few Scotch cities, however, show remarkable progress in this respect. The Edinburgh system of providing meals for poor children and also the system under which the pupils leaving school are aided in getting suitable employment have both attracted wide attention. In the Western Division of Scotland all the counties except Argyle have established medical inspection as a county service, and in the county named the work is only temporarily delayed. In the burgh of Peterhead, in the north of Scotland, through the concerted action of churches, charity organizations, and the school board, a joint council has been formed, to which are committed all the services comprised under the head of welfare work, namely, child welfare from birth to the age of 16, juvenile-employment bureau, medical inspection of school children, feeding and clothing of school children, and charity organizations.

IRELAND.

The reform of education in Ireland, to use a phrase which has become common in the discussion of conditions in that island, awaits the issue of the pending legislation on home rule. Meanwhile, educational progress appears from the official reports and is admitted even by candid observers who do not favor present conditions. The bishop of Limerick, in a recent address, eulogizes the very systems which are

under a constant fire of criticism—the intermediate and the primary—as follows:

In recent years all education in Ireland has made great advances. Under the commissioners of intermediate education we must allow, although we need not admire their system of examinations, that secondary education has received a very strong and vigorous impulse.

And, what touches us here more nearly, we have in town and country as complete, as efficient, as well organized a system of primary education as you will find in any country, with, perhaps, the exception of Germany and Scotland.

I know very well that a different opinion is nowadays expressed by speakers on public platforms, but for myself I prefer to exercise my own judgment, founded on a long and intimate acquaintance with our schools, than be led by these persons, the most of whom, as our Yankee friends would express it, are "talking through their hats."

And I think that I may appeal to the business community of Limerick to bear me out in what I say of our primary schools. The greater number of them in this city are conducted by the Christian Brothers and I dare say that before a Limerick audience it is not necessary to argue their capability to train the intellect or form the character of youth.

We have also some very fine National schools. I happen myself to be officially connected with one of them, Leamy's School, and I can affirm on my own knowledge that it is a school of the very first order.

The National system, to which that school belongs, has spread over the whole country and has struck its roots deeply in the confidence of the people, for whom it is doing, on the widest scale, an educational work of the highest value.

Statistics of the National system for 1910-11.

Number of schools-----	8,337	Expenditure -----	£1,714,103
Average enrollment-----	699,945	United States equivalent--	\$8,330,540
Average daily attendance---	495,962	Per capita of average en-	
Per cent of average enrollment	70.8	rollment -----	\$11.90
Number of teachers:			
Men -----	5,697		
Women -----	9,584		
Total -----	15,281		

The National system of elementary education has won its way in the face of the schools of the Christian Brothers, which have accomplished great things for Ireland and have a lasting place in the confidence of its people. These schools are carried on independently of the national commissioners, or what may be termed the public system, but the latter recognizes all church schools which comply with the official requirements.

The average enrollment in the National schools for the latest year reported (1910-11) was 699,945. The attendance at the schools of the Christian Brothers would bring this total to about 720,000, or 16 per cent of the population.

Separate schools are maintained for Roman Catholic and for Protestant pupils, the former constituting the great majority, i. e., 74.5 per cent of the total number. The distribution of the Roman

Catholic pupils for the year reviewed was as follows: 370,728 pupils in the separate schools for Roman Catholics; 128,243 in mixed schools taught by teachers of that faith, and 3,987 in mixed schools taught by Protestant teachers. The separate schools for Protestants had 116,383 pupils, and the mixed schools under Protestant teachers 47,310.

Early withdrawal from school is an evil of great proportions in this country, explained in part by the excess of the rural population, which forms 69 per cent of the total. The same cause accounts, also, for the low standing of pupils, of whom at the last report 43 per cent were in the first grade, the proportion falling to 13 per cent for the second grade, and the same for the third, with continued decline for the higher grades. Thus far, as these ratios indicate, the impulse given to secondary education by the system of official examinations and Government grants has had little effect upon the class of children found in the elementary schools.

Efforts for correcting the evils of irregular school attendance and nonattendance are directed mainly to increasing the attractions of the schools, by means of better schoolhouses and more competent teachers. New and improved buildings are replacing makeshift schoolhouses, and a general scheme for increasing the salaries of teachers has been adopted by the Government, which is gradually going into effect.

The increased expenditure thus incurred has been met by additional appropriations from the public treasury, amounting to an average annual increase for the past four years of £23,000 (\$113,780). Of the entire teaching force, numbering 12,829, more than two-thirds (68 per cent) have been trained in some one of the 10 training colleges which receive Government grants.

The commissioners urge large additions to the annual appropriation in order that Ireland may be brought to the level of Great Britain, by provision for public high schools, for school gardens, and for medical and dental inspection of school children.

THE RURAL UPLIFT MOVEMENT.

The recent progress in education is due in great measure to the remarkable movement for rural uplift, which is inseparably associated with the name of Horace Plunkett, first vice president of the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction. The work which he recommended not only transformed Ireland, but blazed the way which has since been followed in England and Scotland and stimulated similar efforts in other parts of the Empire. Primary education has been affected indirectly by this movement through the increased prosperity of rural communities; in the same way the development of

technical education has given an impetus to primary schools in the populous centers. New hopes and interests, arising from the higher rewards of industry, excite ambition alike in parents and children. In some measure the movement has affected the daily routine of the schools by creating an interest in subjects bearing directly upon the common industries of life. This is especially seen in the increasing number of schools offering instruction in domestic arts, i. e., cookery and laundry work; since 1907 the number of girls taking this instruction has more than doubled. In their latest report the commissioners call attention to arrangements made with the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for the attendance of national school pupils at classes in domestic economy in technical schools, where the local committees in charge of the latter are desirous of cooperating. A grant of 7s. 6d. per pupil is made to the authorities of the technical school. It is hoped by this means to secure for the pupils of urban districts a thoroughly sound course of instruction in domestic economy. In this way also the elementary schools are brought into relation with the system of technical education.

The revival of cottage industries, more particularly that of lace making, has brought different classes of society more closely together; women of the wealthier classes started the industry, furnished patterns and material at their own expense, and developed plans for marketing the lace. The congested districts board, which has taken up the work in the unproductive districts of western Ireland, has simply adopted the methods originated by Lady Aberdeen and her associates in the enterprise. The relations brought about through these benevolent activities have done much to revive the sense of national unity and improvement, which has stimulated an interest in the revival of the Irish language. Leagues for the study of the Gaelic language and literature have been formed, and the subject has been included in the school programs, and in 1911 was taught in about one-third the entire number of national schools; in 191 schools a bilingual program of Irish and English has been adopted..

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

The latest report of the work of the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, covering the year 1911, shows an expenditure for the agricultural division of £139,000 (\$647,540). Of this amount £3,500 (\$17,010) was appropriated for investigation and research. The amount applied directly to the various agencies for agricultural education, i. e., agricultural colleges and stations, schools and classes, lectures and demonstrations, was in round numbers £33,000 (\$165,000).

Among the agencies sharing in this fund were 9 schools of rural domestic economy for girls, with 656 pupils; 40 county instructors, who made during the year 14,700 visits to farms; and the Albert Agricultural College, at Glasnevin.

The current year completes a decade in the movement for technical education in Ireland which has borne an important part in the recent industrial progress of the country. The Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction began the work of the latter division in 1901 by establishing summer courses for training teachers in the sciences that underlie the industrial arts; classes in drawing and in manual work for teachers followed. Subsequently the department developed schemes of instruction and plans for the organization of technical and industrial classes for young pupils, in combination with local agencies. Scholarships were also established to assist pupils in pursuing these courses. The work spread until nearly all the secondary schools of Ireland have adopted the department program of experimental science and drawing. The final stage in this development is marked by the establishment of municipal technical schools, which are aided by grants from the department.

In a review of the decade the chief officer of the technical division of the department says:

So far as rural industries are concerned the powers of the department are undoubtedly wide, and they have been freely and beneficially exercised. Industries for the making of lace and crochet and in embroidery, for which Ireland has become world-famed, have been encouraged and have developed; art crafts are practiced with success in many places. But outside the wide field of agricultural industries and of home industries, including machine knitting, sprigging, and the like, the department must confine its efforts to educational aid. Here, however, some interesting developments have taken place. * * * Among these may be noticed the glove-making industry in Tipperary and the machine-embroidery school at Ballydougan.

The Municipal Technical Institute opened during the year at Limerick is an important addition to the six recently established in as many cities. The bishop of Limerick, who was the chief speaker at the inauguration of the building, congratulated his fellow townsmen that the institution was entirely their own, and he expressed the confident belief that it was destined to exercise for generations to come a "profound and far-reaching influence upon the progress and prosperity of the city."

Although the Government does not contribute to the erection of the buildings for the municipal schools, they are partly maintained by grants from the department. The annual sum appropriated by this body for technical instruction is £55,000 (\$275,000). Of this amount £26,000 (\$130,000) is allotted to cities (county boroughs) and £29,000 (\$145,000) is applied elsewhere.

Attendance at universities of Great Britain and Ireland at specified dates.

Universities and university colleges.	Students.					
	1901	1903	1905	1907	1910	1912
Great Britain:						
England—						
Oxford (22 colleges, 3 halls and non-collegiate students).....	3,481	3,570	3,648	3,742	3,857	3,951
Cambridge (17 colleges, 1 hostel and non-collegiate students).....	2,958	2,900	3,054	3,463	3,726	3,748
Durham.....	590	1,831	870	926	1,049	1,100
London ¹	2,132	3,005	3,071	3,264	4,119	² 4,120
Birmingham.....	677	814	850	848	984	1,017
Bristol.....					543	700
Leeds.....		842	833	815	933	901
Liverpool.....		667	790	914	914	³ 1,078
Manchester (Victoria).....	2,404	1,914	1,152	1,432	1,554	1,557
Sheffield.....			512	676	885	818
University colleges (3).....	4,131			5,999	1,961	³ 781
University colleges for women (3).....	417		443	517	529	312
University of Wales (3 colleges).....	1,428	1,495	1,383	1,301	1,551	1,500
Scotland—						
Aberdeen.....	755	814	830	862	924	988
Edinburgh.....	2,929	2,990	3,165	3,278	3,366	3,421
Glasgow.....	2,013	2,178	2,364	2,580	2,709	2,771
St. Andrews (3 colleges).....	419	546	502	531	561	510
Ireland:						
Dublin University (Trinity).....	976	936	1,088	1,089		1,100
National University of Ireland—						
University College, Dublin.....		180	184	240		770
University College, Cork.....	171	199	232	254	450	425
University College, Galway.....	97	97	97	112		140
Queen's University, Belfast.....	359	342	387	371		606

¹ The University of London, reconstituted as a teaching university in 1900, in accordance with the provisions of the University of London act, 1898, comprises three colleges incorporated in the university and a large number of federated colleges and professional schools. The table presents the number of students registered in degree courses for the years specified.

² 1911.

³ Full time.

CHAPTER XIX.

EDUCATION IN THE KINGDOMS OF NORTHERN EUROPE.

CONTENTS.

Scandinavian countries—Denmark; Sweden; Norway.—Belgium: School provision; welfare activities; technical schools.—The Netherlands.

SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES.

The Scandinavian countries are characterized by their ample provision of schools and the close adaptation of the teaching to the civic and industrial conditions of the people. Elementary education is free and compulsory for all children, the standard of qualifications for teachers is high, and continuation schools afford the means for prolonging the training of the people beyond the elementary stage.

DENMARK.

The basis of the general education in Denmark is the common school, or people's school (decree of July 24, 1814, and act of March 29, 1904). Its task, according to an official statement—

is to make its pupils good and righteous citizens in conformity with the Evangelical Christian religion (of the Lutheran State Church) and to give them a certain amount of instruction and expertness, so that they may eventually become useful citizens. The subjects taught are Danish, religion, penmanship, arithmetic, geography, history, singing, and gymnastics. The instruction given in the people's schools is enlarged upon in the continuation schools, the evening schools, and the "people's high schools."¹

Statistics of the various classes of schools, 1910-11.

PRIMARY SYSTEM.

Classes of schools.	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Elementary schools:			
City—			
Public—			
Copenhagen.....	42	1,613	51,104
Frederickburg.....	8	316	9,064
Provincial.....	147	2,239	74,237
Total public.....	197	4,168	134,405
Private.....	243	1,343	14,793
Rural—			
Public.....	3,225	5,353	242,291
Private.....	390	655	12,837
Continuation:			
City.....	440	5,511	149,198
Rural.....	3,615	6,008	255,128

¹ For particulars relating to the general system of education the office is indebted to the courtesy of Dr. Maurice Egan, American Minister to Denmark.

Statistics of the various classes of schools, 1910-11—Continued.

SECONDARY SYSTEM.

Classes of schools.	Schools.	Teachers.	Pupils.
Private:			
Latin schools.....	39	903	9,860
Realskole.....	126	1,174	17,815
State schools.....	12	196	2,878

The grand total expended by the State during the year 1910-11 for all the different schools was 7,101,154 kroner (\$1,903,109). Of this sum the amount appropriated to each of the institutions for higher education was: For the University of Copenhagen, 765,958 kroner; for the Polytechnicum, 331,009 kroner; for the Lyceums, 509,158 kroner; for the Royal Academy, 128,330 kroner; for the Veterinary High School, 477,967 kroner; total, 2,212,422 kroner.

The communal expenditures for the year 1909-10 were as follows: Copenhagen, 5,275,162 kroner; provincial towns, 5,165,000 kroner; rural, 8,401,000 kroner; making a total of 18,841,162 kroner (\$5,049,431).

As is evident from these statistics the State and communal expenditures for public education are nearly 10 kroner (\$2.86) for each inhabitant. Although the amount is rather large, yet it is bearing good fruit, for Denmark ranks high among the nations in respect to the standard and diffusion of public education.

DANISH RURAL SCHOOLS.

In the present world-wide movement for "rural uplift" Denmark has attracted special attention by reason of its progress in this respect. This advanced position is due to the system of agricultural and distributive cooperation, and the diffusion of education which made this cooperation possible. The following statement¹ pertains to the means by which the Danish rural schools are maintained at their high state of efficiency:

Attendance.—All normal children must attend the school sessions regularly through the eight years of the elementary schools. A fine is assessed and enforced by the Government for each and every day that is missed by any would-be truant. As a result Danish country districts show less than one-twentieth of 1 per cent illiteracy to-day.

Size of school districts.—Two things determine the size of the school districts: (1) The number of children to be taught; and (2) the distance of the children from school. No child shall be obliged to go farther than 1½ English miles to school, and there must not be more than 30 to 35 children in a room. Where the rural districts are thickly populated one may see two, three, and even four room schools. These are all well graded, but none of them

¹ By H. W. Foght, specialist in rural education, U. S. Bureau of Education; at present (March, 1913) on a tour of investigation in Denmark.

undertakes to do what we would call high-school work. This is the field of another kind of school—the folk high school.

Schoolhouses.—All new school buildings in the country must be erected in compliance with certain rules laid down by the ministry of education. Sanitation, proper ventilation, heating and lighting are covered by these rules. Every rural community of reasonable wealth must provide a suitable covered gymnasium. The less well-to-do communities must furnish a well prepared, leveled, and sanded space for outdoor gymnastics and play. This must measure at least 600 square meters. The space must be inclosed and have small sheds for the preservation of gymnastic apparatus. Thus in Denmark every country boy and girl may have daily gymnastic training.

Sanitation.—All classrooms must be thoroughly aired before and after school, as well as during intermissions. All floors must be scrubbed daily. Wood-work and furniture must also be wiped with a wet rag daily. Once a week the schoolrooms must be cleansed with soap and water.

The school year.—The length of the school year is uniformly a minimum of 41 weeks of 246 school days in rural communities. School is carried on 6 days in the week. Some schools run as much as 300 days a year. However, this does not mean that all the children must attend all of these days, for an old law gives this minimum prescription that all children shall have at least 21 hours of instruction per week for 41 weeks. It is so arranged that the older pupils may attend 3 whole days and 2 half days, instead of the full time, during the summer, while the same holds good for the children during the winter months. In some cases the attendance may even be further reduced.

Teacher preparation.—All teachers are licensed by the Government through the ministry of education, and just as thorough preparation is required of a teacher in the rural schools as of one in the grade schools in the towns and cities. The free public school covers the first eight years in the school system, whether in town or in the country. To supply teachers for these schools, 20 teachers' seminaries have been established. Teachers for the higher schools (middle schools, gymnasia, etc.) are trained in other higher institutions of the land. The training in these seminaries is uniformly strict and thoroughgoing. This means that rural districts get as thoroughly trained teachers as the towns do.

Salaries for rural teachers.—Under the law of 1908 teachers in one-room schools receive a beginning salary of from 900 to 1,400 kroner per annum and receive an annual increase for 20 years until 1,000 kroner additional has been reached; i. e., a teacher may ultimately reach 2,400 kroner in money. Besides this, he receives free house, fuel, and good garden. These perquisites amount to another 1,000 kroner. Then he may earn 100 kroner to act as church chorister. This makes 3,500 kroner (\$945), almost three times the average pay for rural teachers in the United States.

The "People's High School" is the institution by means of which Denmark has solved for itself the problem of the ethical and civic training of its adult population, and for this purpose it has been adopted by the other Scandinavian countries.

During the present year 80 schools of this class were conducted in Denmark, with an attendance of about 8,000 young men and women. They were maintained usually by private contributions, the small fees paid by the students, and a State grant which averages for each school about 3,000 kroner (\$800) a year.

These high schools are intended for adults—that is, persons over 18 years of age—who pay their board and tuition for the session. In extreme cases they may get a public grant amounting to about half the expenses. The schools are privately owned, but in case not less than 20 persons attend one of the centers for three successive terms the State grants a small subsidy for its support. The session for men lasts for five months in the winter, and for women three months in the early summer. The more successful schools also take short-time scholars, generally elementary teachers, who spend a fortnight of their vacation in this way. The great majority of the students come from country towns and villages and from small farms, often at great sacrifice of time and money, animated by the desire for intellectual and moral guidance. The fact should be emphasized that this unique institution does not offer technical training. As one authority says:

Nothing is taught that could be of any direct use to any scholar in his or her walk of life. The aim is to awaken souls, not to give practical knowledge. * * * To this end song and speech are the ancient and proved weapons employed. Nearly all the teaching is in the form of lectures. Not facts are sought, but truth; not information, but new life. History is the main subject; history, the living spirit of the people, uniting all the sons of men. Lectures are also given on language and literature, on politics, poetry, science, and nature study. Much latitude is allowed to the teacher. It is recognized that not the word spoken, but the speaker of it, signifies. One hour's daily gymnastics is compulsory on all. In the larger schools there are social evenings, when the pupils ask questions which the head master answers and discusses.

The value of the people's high schools as agencies for civic and moral improvement was recognized during the year by the place given them in the program of the second international congress on moral education. As set forth in a paper presented on that occasion—

The spirit that characterizes this institution springs from the belief that different as the work is to every one of us, nevertheless an education exists which is common to us all, attainable through the common admission to the supreme good of the spiritual life. * * *

The men of the high schools believe in the possibility of representing the life and work of even the greatest personalities in a way which makes at any rate the nourishing, inner kernel of it available and approachable even to the humblest man or woman. And this has a special application upon the spiritual property of any single people. A "popular" (*folkelig*) education means an education which has sprung up from a heartfelt living together with the history of the people and from a belief in this history as the property of all the members of the people being able to unite them into one living organism.¹

¹ Bredzorff, Thomas. The people's high schools in Denmark. (*In Mémoires sur l'éducation morale; présentés au deuxième congrès international d'éducation morale, La Haye, 1912.*)

SWEDEN.

Each country of the Scandinavian group offers some striking example of the means of promoting the general welfare of the people through school agencies. Sweden leads in respect to the provision of school gardens and vacation colonies, and the physical and manual training of school children through its unique system of gymnastics, and the complete adaptation of the sloyd exercises to different classes of schools.

Notwithstanding its completeness and recognized excellence, the entire educational system of Sweden has recently been brought under special investigation with a view to needed modifications. Of three commissions appointed for that purpose two have submitted exhaustive reports during the current year covering the fields assigned them.

The first commission, appointed in 1906, was charged with the investigation of normal schools, primarily in Sweden, but for purposes of comparison including also foreign countries. The report of this commission brings under review all conditions affecting the training of teachers in Sweden, admission to the teaching service, and the financial status of teachers. These matters necessarily involve the primary schools; hence the inquiry has covered the entire field of primary education. So far, time has been wanting for full consideration of the recommendations of the commission, which pertain almost entirely to minor features of the system.¹

The second commission was appointed in 1907 to investigate the system of technical and industrial education and, like the commission on normal schools, included foreign countries in its scope. The report of this commission brings together, therefore, a mass of information of great value to persons charged with the administration of the various orders of vocational and technical schools.²

NORWAY.

Norway is noted for its ample provision of industrial schools which maintain and develop the arts characteristic of the nation, in particular work in metals and wood, and the feminine industries of embroidery and lace work. Recently attention has been directed to the need of training for agriculture, although Norway has a comparatively small proportion of productive soil, 25 per cent, as against 90 per cent in Denmark. It is estimated that less than 4 per cent even of the productive land is under full cultivation. As a consequence of the recent agitation of this subject, measures have been taken to establish agricultural schools at selected centers and to interest

¹ Folkundervisningskommitténs Betänkande, vols. 1-4. Stockholm, 1912.

² Underdänigt utlåtande och förslag till den lägre tekniska undervisningens ordande avgivet av den avkungl. maj:t den 4 Oktober, 1907, tillsatta kommittén. 1912. Vols. 1-3.

farmers in improved methods and implements of agriculture by means of lectures and demonstrations.

The manner in which technical schools arise in response to local needs is illustrated by the plans for a new trade school at Stavanger, described by the American consul at that town as follows:

The school will start with three separate six month' courses in electromechanics, architecture and building, and the canning and preserving industry. The plan is to give a practical elementary training to persons actually employed in the vocations covered by the subjects. Those receiving the training must have a public-school education and have been actually employed in their several vocations for three years preceding their entering the school. Only a nominal tuition fee of 5 kroner (\$1.34) per month will be charged, the only expense to students.

Besides three trades teachers in electromechanics, building, and practical machinery, the school will have a teacher in chemistry one hour daily and one in arithmetic two hours daily. The trades teachers will receive a salary of 2,400 kroner (\$643.20) per year. The plan is to have the day-school teachers employed also in the present night school, which will increase the above salaries somewhat.

The expense budget for the school as adopted calls for the following expenditures: Salary for manager, 600 kroner (\$160.80); three trade teachers, at 2,400 kroner, 7,200 kroner (\$1,929.60); one arithmetic teacher, 600 kroner (\$160.80); one chemistry teacher, 450 kroner (\$120.60); apparatus, janitor services, etc., 1,500 kroner (\$402); library, 500 kroner (\$134); free tuition for pupils, 300 kroner (\$80.40); office supplies and examination expenses, 650 kroner (\$174.20); total, 11,800 kroner (\$3,162.40).

The following is quoted from the local "Aftenblad."

This (Stavanger) amt is largely interested in mechanics, having 9,887 industrial workers. Few can afford to go to the elementary technical schools in Christiania, because of the cost and loss of wages. There is an especially strong demand for some technical education for those engaged in the canning factories, giving them at least elementary training as to raw materials, and the mechanical processes involved in canning and preserving fish, as well as some knowledge of elementary chemistry. The school is needed not only for the benefit of the laborers, but for the industrial concerns employing them. Already these industries have been greatly benefited by many inventions of workmen employed in the factories. And if these workmen are given some technical training the factories are bound to profit thereby.¹

BELGIUM.

SCHOOL PROVISION.

In regard to the diffusion of public instruction Belgium presents great inequalities, some communes standing very high in this respect and others being exceedingly backward; hence the high degree of illiteracy, as shown by successive censuses. According to the latest census (1900), in Luxembourg, the Province in which instruction is

¹ Statement by Consul P. Emerson Taylor, Stavanger.

most widely diffused, 20 per cent of the population above 8 years of age were illiterate, and in East and West Flanders, which stand lowest, 39 per cent. This showing is emphasized by the reports of the examination of recruits: In 1910 nearly 8.9 per cent of the young men called out for military service could neither read nor write, while in the neighboring nations there are practically no illiterates. The absence of a compulsory-school-attendance law has long been deplored by leaders of the Liberal Party, as well as by prominent men among the Conservatives, but it is impossible at present to secure a majority for an educational measure. Bills introduced in the legislative sessions of 1910 and 1911 provided for limited compulsion, but none of them was passed. They served, however, to keep the subject before public attention.

WELFARE ACTIVITIES.

In striking contrast with the high degree of illiteracy in Belgium is the activity of individuals and of associations in promoting liberal ideas of popular education, and the support of enterprises for insuring the health and the social welfare of the young. Brussels is one of the chief centers of these activities in Europe, and affords suggestive lessons for other cities in respect to provision for school hygiene, medical inspection of school children, and general care for the health and welfare of the poor and necessitous.

Vacation colonies are maintained every summer by the cooperation of the city authorities and numerous private associations. Of 2,500 children having by this means the benefit of a brief stay in the country during the past year, 350 boys and 370 girls were taken to colonies maintained by the city; the remainder were in charge of private associations.

For the medical inspection of school children a force of 15 doctors, 2 dental surgeons, and 4 nurses is employed. The medical corps includes a specialist in affections of the throat, nose, and ear, two specialists in defects of vision, and two women doctors attached to the special schools for girls. The nurses, who are a recent addition to the force, visit the homes of pupils needing particular attention. As the hospitals of Brussels are municipal institutions, it is easy to arrange for the continued care of those pupils who are found to be critically ill.

Food and clothing are supplied to very poor children attending the public schools by two societies, viz, *L'Œuvre de la Bouchée de Pain* and *L'Œuvre de la Soupe Scolaire*. A third society, *L'Œuvre du Bol de Café*, simply gives coffee and biscuit. The city government aids the work of these societies by appropriations amounting to about \$3,000 annually.

Distribution of clothing to destitute pupils is made both by the city and by private societies. In 1910 above 6,000 children benefited by this assistance.

The latest endeavor for the welfare of pupils is the formation of committees to assist those who leave school, in their efforts to find suitable employment. The first committee of this kind was formed in 1910 in connection with a single school; the example has since been followed in several other districts of the city.

The inculcation of thrift and temperance is enjoined upon teachers of all grades of schools throughout Belgium; in the former subject the teaching is reenforced by the school savings banks, which according to the latest report had a total of 472,697 depositors in primary schools, and 35,646 in schools for adults. The deposits by the children amounted to 13,106,910 francs, and by the adults to 1,438,946 francs; or a total equivalent to \$2,909,171.

TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

The year has been marked in Belgium by the publication of a report on technical education, including technical schools of high order, and trade and industrial schools.¹ The report covers the decade ended 1910, during which period the number of technical schools subsidized by the Government increased from 579 to 703. The latter comprised 389 schools for girls, of which 330 were schools of domestic science and household arts, including professional schools for training teachers of these branches; the remaining technical schools for girls pertained to industries in which women are employed, such as dressmaking, embroidery, making artificial flowers, lace work, decorative art, etc.

The technical schools for boys include institutions as dissimilar as the vocational classes, which are held on Sunday, and highly organized technical schools like the central schools of arts and trades at Anderlecht and Liege.

The elaborate system of technical education is maintained by the cooperation of the State, the communes, and private bodies, but however maintained, the technical and industrial schools subsidized by the State are under Government inspection.

STATISTICS.

In 1910, the latest year for which official statistics are available, the number of children in primary schools, omitting infant schools and schools for the defective, was 929,347; in continuation schools

¹ Ministère de l'industrie et du travail; Rapport général sur la situation de l'enseignement technique en Belgique (1902-1910), Bruxelles, 1912 (2 vols.).

and classes for adults, 240,019; or a total of 1,169,366 pupils in elementary schools under the ministry of public instruction. This total was 15.5 per cent of the population (7,516,730).

The pupils in schools of commerce, industry, and agriculture numbered altogether 52,486. These are the select and most ambitious graduates from the primary schools.

The higher technical schools, 14 in number, are not included in the foregoing statement, as they draw their students from secondary schools, generally those of the lower order. The higher order of secondary schools (*athénées royaux*) prepare for the universities, which comprise in their organization the highest technical institutes in the Kingdom. The statistics for 1910 give a total of 6,073 students in the *athénées*; 27,739 (18,572 boys, 9,167 girls) in the communal college, lower secondary schools; and 1,568 in the technical schools; or altogether in secondary schools, general and technical, 35,380 students; at the same time the four universities had 7,880 students, of whom one-third were in the technical departments.¹

By its scope and supervisory service the system of technical education illustrates the broad distinction between skilled and unskilled labor as economic factors in the State. This distinction gives ground for the propaganda in behalf of the social and intellectual uplift of the masses, which has its center in the University of Brussels. By reason of its private endowment and control, this university has been free to take advanced ground in respect to social and economic teachings.

THE NETHERLANDS.

Attention has been particularly directed to the Kingdom of the Netherlands during the year by the sessions of the second international congress on moral education which were held at The Hague August 22 to 27. The choice was determined in part by the distinction of this city as a center of international interests; but it was also selected as a place favorable to free discussion of the questions before the congress, for in the Netherlands tolerance is exercised toward all religious creeds and ethical doctrines. This spirit is fostered by the school system, which gives equal recognition to public nonsectarian schools and to religious schools of different denominations so long as they meet the Government requirements in regard to the qualification of teachers, programs, and standards. In this respect the Netherlands is naturally contrasted with Belgium,

¹ The reports of the minister of public instruction are issued triennially in separate volumes for the three departments, primary, secondary, and superior. The latest reports bring the record through 1908-9. The statistics for 1910 are derived from the *Annuaire Statistique de la Belgique*, issued by the Ministry of the Interior in 1912.

where denominational prejudices seriously affect the progress of education.

The population of the Netherlands was 5,945,155 in 1910, of which 59.5 per cent was rural. The enrollment in elementary schools the same year was 904,142, a little more than 15 per cent of the population, about the same ratio as in Belgium. School attendance, however, is much more regular than in Belgium and the proportion of illiterates much lower.

The sentiment of the people and the many inducements offered pupils in the way of prizes and of admission to industrial and technical schools have combined to promote school attendance, and until a recent date the Netherlands had no compulsory law. Propositions for amending the school law in this respect were repeatedly considered but abandoned for fear of disturbing the harmony that prevailed regarding the system. With the increase in urban populations, which has been marked at each census since 1869, and the accompanying industrial changes, irregularities in school attendance increased, and in 1900, by the common consensus of all parties, a compulsory school-attendance law was passed. The effects of this law are already marked. According to official data for the communes reporting the item, the proportion of children of school age (7 to 13) not receiving instruction and not legally exempt from school attendance was 0.21 per cent in 1904; in 1908 the proportion had fallen to 0.10 per cent. The example of the Netherlands in this respect has given new impetus to the campaign for compulsory education waged by the Liberals in Belgium.

During the present year the Kingdom has been excited by a claim on the part of the clerical authorities, both Catholic and Protestant, that the church school shall have equal claim with the public schools upon Government support; an amendment to the constitution has been proposed which would establish this provision as the fundamental law of the land. Thus, on the eve of the new elections, which take place June 4, 1913, the question of church versus state has become a burning issue in this Kingdom.

CHAPTER XX.

EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENTS IN FRANCE AND SWITZERLAND.

CONTENTS.

France: Conspectus of the administrative system.—Statistics of primary schools.—School attendance.—Medical inspection.—The teaching service.—The Government *v.* teachers' syndicates.—Measures in the interests of teachers.—Need of continuation schools.—Secondary education: Classification of schools; statistics of secondary schools for boys; the new program; development of secondary education for girls.—Higher education: Distribution of students; the reorganization of medical studies; Government appropriations for higher institutions, 1911; for the entire service, 1911–12.

Switzerland: Distinctive features of public education.—Statistics.—Agencies for continuation education.—Public expenditure for education.

FRANCE.

CONSPECTUS OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

The system of public instruction comprises separate departments of primary, secondary, and higher education, each under its own chief director; the supreme authority being centralized in the minister of public instruction. The minister, in advice with the superior council of education, drafts all laws modifying the system, and submits the budget for education. These measures he supports in the legislature.

For local educational administration, France is divided into 17 circumscriptions, called academies. The rector, or chief of an academy, assisted by the academic council, directs all classes of institutions within his circumscription in accordance with the laws and ministerial decrees. The area for the administration of primary education is the Department, a civil division, but in respect to the control of schools subordinate to the academic rector. Primary schools are under the supervision of Government inspectors, and also of local inspectors and committees.

Primary instruction is strictly secular, free, and compulsory for all children, ages 6 to 13, or until exemption certificate is secured. Teachers must be French citizens, belong to the laity, and have Government diplomas. Other ministries than that of public instruction are charged with the administration of special classes of schools, i. e., technical, agricultural, military, etc.

Statistics of primary schools, France and Algeria, 1909-10.

Classes of schools.	Schools.	Teachers.	Enrolled pupils.
Infant schools:			
Public—			
Lay.....	2,672	6,816	509,512
Cleric.....	11	17	1,905
Private—			
Lay.....	1,174	1,540	91,129
Cleric.....	129	229	17,472
Total.....	3,986	8,602	620,018
Primary and higher schools:			
Public—			
Boys' and mixed.....	45,501	¹ 58,364	³ 2,482,885
Girls'.....	23,619	² 60,783	⁴ 2,124,354
Private—			
Boys' and mixed.....	3,423	¹ 8,233	³ 349,705
Girls'.....	9,668	² 28,168	⁴ 681,833
Total.....	82,211	155,548	5,638,777

¹ Men.² Women.³ Boys.⁴ Girls.**SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.**

In France the provision of public primary schools is quite equal to the demand, but school attendance is unsatisfactory. Thirty years have elapsed since the passage of the compulsory school law, and France is still disturbed by the number of illiterates. In 1907, of the total recruits entering the military service, 3 per cent were illiterate, while for Prussia and Switzerland the ratio was less than 1 per cent. This disparity fixes attention upon the state of school attendance, as reported by local inspectors from many parts of the country. It is estimated that in the suburbs of Paris two-thirds of the children of school age are absent from May to November, or during that time attend school only 60 or 80 half days. In many country districts the degree of irregular attendance or nonattendance is much greater. Yet, according to the law, every commune has a committee to look after school attendance and a fund to assist poor children in order that they may attend. The machinery simply does not work.

What is needed—

says one inspector—

is not alone better enforcement of the compulsory law, but a new conception of popular education, a new spirit in the teaching corps, and in the people themselves.

The irregularity of school attendance and the tendency to early withdrawal are the more noticeable from the fact that the census of the school population and the actual enrollment in school are strictly supervised. The enrollment in primary schools (excluding infant schools) has been maintained for several years at 14.2 per cent of the total population (39,601,509); this is a fair ratio for France, in which the child population is comparatively small.

MEDICAL INSPECTION.

Although the actual work of the schools is peculiarly uniform throughout France, city schools offer many advantages that are wanting in the country. For instance, in the former, medical inspection is generally well organized and effectively carried out. In the Department of the Seine (population, 4,154,042) there are 275 medical inspectors who visit the schools of their respective districts every week. Equal provision is made by other cities, Lyon, Bordeaux, Nancy, Lille, Havre, etc. In the rural regions the service is neither well organized nor adequate, and it is to their interests that the pending bill is directed, providing for medical school inspection throughout the nation. The measure was strongly supported by the congress of school medical inspectors held during the year.

THE TEACHING SERVICE.

The spirit of the teaching force at the present time is in striking contrast with that which prevailed during the early years of the third Republic. The primary school was then the hope of the future, and men and women were drawn to its service by patriotic fervor. This high enthusiasm has passed, and to-day the recruitment of the service is subject to the same conditions as in other countries. The falling off in the number of candidates, as well as in their quality, excites apprehension for the future.

For a full understanding of the changed conditions it should be recalled that one feature of the system of primary instruction created by the Republic was the ample provision of local normal schools. The law required that there should be two in every Department (one for each sex), excepting in case a Department should be authorized to combine with another for this purpose. Unity of ideals, as well as the efficiency of the primary normal schools, was secured by the creation of two higher normal schools—St. Cloud for men, Fontenay-aux-Roses for women—to prepare professors for the departmental schools.

Candidates seeking admission to the primary normals must be at least 16 years of age and must have already passed the examination entitling one to the brevet élémentaire, or lowest grade teacher's diploma. The course of the primary normal schools covers three years, the last year being given entirely to professional training, theoretic and practical; only students who pass successfully the examination at the end of the second year, which entitles them to the brevet supérieure, or teacher's diploma of the higher degree, are allowed to remain for the third year.

Not the social welfare alone, but professional pride as well, is imperiled in the lowering standard of the teaching service, and in

the interest of the profession itself an inquiry into the causes of the present crisis has been conducted during the year by the Manuel Général, which, under the direction of M. F. Buisson, has long been the forum and bulwark of the primary teachers. The inquiry discloses the fact that the number of candidates for admission to the primary normal schools fell from 4,909 in 1906 to 3,692 in 1912, a decrease of 1,217, or one-third of the present total, in six years; but of the 3,692 candidates offering themselves in the current year, only 1,630, or less than one-half of the whole number, passed the admission requirements; the failure in this respect was common to all the 87 Departments, and it implies, further, a decline in the standard of the first-grade diploma, which is held by many probationary teachers who do not enter the normal school at all. The reporter commenting on the situation says:

The greatest need of the present moment is to assure to the schools a sufficient number of qualified teachers. To this purpose many things must conduce. The efforts of the teachers themselves will not be wanting, but they demand that they shall have some other aid than discourses and soothing felicitations upon their devotion to the grandeur of the work which they accomplish.

THE GOVERNMENT *v.* TEACHERS' SYNDICATES.

Unusual complications affecting the service have arisen during the year from the action of the Government in respect to teachers' syndicates. As civil servants, teachers are forbidden to form trade-unions or to take part in political affairs. The legality of teachers' unions which have existed for many years was, however, provisionally affirmed by the French Legislature in 1905 in connection with legislation affecting the religious orders. The unions, or "amicales," as they are called, are rather loosely organized and have for their object simply the promotion of the professional spirit and the welfare of their members. The general association of teachers is formed by the federation of the "amicales," and numbers about 98,000 members. From the unions have arisen teachers' syndicates, which are more closely organized than the unions, and carry on an active and aggressive campaign for the social and financial improvement of teachers. While it is difficult to distinguish between the syndicates and the amicales, the great body of teachers belonging to the latter are not members of the former.

Through the similarity of their purposes the syndicates were drawn into close relations with the unions of workmen (trade-unions), and finally the federation of the teachers' syndicates was affiliated with the *Confédération générale du travail* (*C. G. T.*),¹ an action opposed by the Government.

¹ Buisson, F. *Nouveau dictionnaire de pédagogie.* Article, Syndicats d'instituteurs.

At the annual congress of the Teachers' Federation, held at Chambéry in August of the present year, resolutions were adopted expressing sympathy with the trade-unions, especially in view of recent repressive acts of the Government, and pledging a fund, the "sou du soldat," intended to aid "their comrades, the syndicated soldiers, morally and financially."

The resolutions gave rise to somewhat heated discussion in the congress as to the true relations between the federation of amicales and the teachers' syndicates, but the congress finally accorded the syndicates full liberty to retain their relation with the amicales.

On the part of the Government the resolutions adopted by the congress were regarded as unpatriotic, designed to promote the anti-military propaganda among the French regiments, and in general as a sign of insubordination on the part of the teachers. Consequently, the minister of public instruction issued a circular letter directing the dissolution of the syndicates before September 10,¹ and on the opening of the fall session of the schools a second circular letter addressed to the academy inspectors instructing them to enforce the previous order.²

The order of dissolution does not apply to the amicales, but the executive committee of their federation protests against it as contrary to law, and they claim for teachers the common rights in regard to association. The union of the Seine, which is the largest in France, has denounced the order in much more resolute terms, and at the same time declares that the only remedy for the unsatisfactory state of the teaching profession is to increase the salaries of teachers, protect them from social indignities, and guarantee them civil rights. The teachers generally support their comrades of the syndicate, and maintain that the spirit of the resolutions adopted at the congress has been wrongly interpreted; but as the excitement subsides it is admitted by many that the language of the resolutions was imprudent. Although the Chamber of Deputies has sustained the ministerial order, the provisional measure of 1905, authorizing teachers' unions, has not been rescinded.

The final disposition of the case awaits legislative action, which will determine exactly the limitations upon teachers who are members of the civil service. In this respect the position of French teachers is in marked contrast with the freedom of teachers in England and in the United States. It is of interest to note the opinion of M. Poincaré on this subject, who, since the events referred to, has been elected President of France.

¹ Bulletin administratif. Aug. 24, 1912, p. 410.

² Ibid. Oct. 12, 1912, p. 658.

In an address delivered at Nantes in November, M. Poincaré, at that time Prime Minister of France, said:

The provisional and irregular state of the administration at the present time can not be prolonged without peril to the public order. The Government has, therefore, agreed with the committee of the Chamber of Deputies upon the essential outlines of a bill. The chairman of the committee has finished his report. Everything is now ready for a discussion, and this can not be prolonged without aggravating the difficulties of a problem which becomes more and more complicated. Certainly no one could desire to restore the inflexible rigidity of the administrative hierarchy of the year VIII; the associations of civil servants have united in a movement which it would be idle to attempt to repress and the importance of which can not be denied; but public servants have some social advantages which neither workmen nor farmers possess, and consequently they have not a right to the same independence. It is necessary, therefore, that the law, while giving to them the guaranty of a fixed and regular statute, shall determine precisely their prerogatives and their obligations.¹

MEASURES IN THE INTERESTS OF TEACHERS.

The pressing need of improved conditions for the teachers in the service of the public elementary schools is fully recognized by the Government, which by longer delay in this respect is exposing itself to the perils of illiteracy and to the insidious criticism of anti-republicans.

In his estimates for the service for the coming year (1913) Minister Guist'hau provides for increases in the annual salaries guaranteed by the States as follows: For probationers, from 1,000 francs to 1,200 francs (\$200 to \$240); of the lowest grade certificated teachers, from 1,200 francs to 1,500 francs (\$240 to \$300); the maximum salary for a man, from 2,200 francs to 2,500 francs (\$440 to \$500); and for a woman, from 2,000 francs to 2,300 francs (\$400 to \$460). Special provision is also promised for teachers who suffer from tuberculosis. These measures, which are to come gradually into effect during the next five years, it is estimated will cost the treasury 40,000,000 francs (\$8,000,000).

In addition to this financial relief the minister made an urgent appeal for measures looking to the protection of teachers against local tyranny and clerical attacks and an increase in the number of teachers appointed on the departmental councils which advise in matters pertaining to elementary education.

NEED OF CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

The problem of school attendance merges into the larger problem of compulsory attendance upon continuation schools, "poste scolaire

¹ Cited from *Le Volume*, No. 7 (Nov. 9), 1912, p. 100.

obligatoire," which has also been the subject of a special investigation during the year on the part of the "Manuel Général." In France, as in other countries, the question of legal provision for prolonging the period of school attendance is inseparable from that of vocational training; but in regard to the latter question France differs somewhat from other countries from the fact that it has long been provided with facilities for preserving the distinctive qualities of its manufacturers, artistic design and perfect finish, which require an élite body of workmen in every trade; it is for the maintenance of such a corps that the network of technical schools, public and private, has developed. The extent and the limitations of this provision are indicated by Prof. Mortier, of the École Nationale Professionnelle, of Vierzon, an authority on this subject. In a recent article Prof. Mortier sums up the present situation substantially as follows:

Both from economic and moral considerations, the welfare of the nation and the rights of the child, it is a duty to secure to each individual a vocation after having given him primary instruction. These are pressing questions, to the study of which we have seen during the past few years both workmen and employers multiplying their efforts, rivaling each other in zeal—as well as the press, public authorities, and educators. From this study we learn that out of a million of young French people reaching the time of independent work, only 25,000 have been trained in the vocational schools (*écoles professionnelles*), 5,000 of these in private schools, while from 60,000 to 70,000 attend with a fair degree of regularity courses of public instruction, vocational in their character—100,000 privileged youths out of 1,000,000! In this respect we are surpassed by Prussia with its 1,719 courses for industrial training and its 381 commercial schools; or altogether 21 schools or classes comprising about 360,000 pupils (600,000 if all Germany be considered). These numbers do not include the 204 special schools for building trades, construction of machines, industrial arts, textiles, etc., with nearly 45,000 pupils. Even Belgium leaves us far behind with its 70,000 pupils; and Denmark, with a population of 2,500,000, counts in its industrial and commercial schools 23,000 students, as many as France with its much larger population. Moreover, to these schools we devote only 7,000,000 francs (\$1,400,000), while the board of education for England disburses for the same work more than 30,000,000 francs (\$6,000,000); Germany, more than 40,000,000 (\$8,000,000); Austria, 15,000,000 (\$3,000,000); and Switzerland, 8,500,000 francs (\$1,700,000). No wonder that, according to statistics during the past 20 years, 1890–1910, the increase of the exportations of Germany and of Belgium, for example, was from 124 to 129 per cent against 66 per cent increase for France.

Although the year under review has been marked by agitation and discussion of the problems here considered, the only important measure adopted by the legislature looking to the general welfare of the young is the appointment of a parliamentary commission to study the means of supplementing the work of the schools by provision for physical education, hygiene, and sports.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Secondary education in France comprises the State lycées and communal colleges for boys, and institutions bearing the same titles for girls; the latter, however, have distinctive courses of study. The typical secondary schools are the lycées for boys, established by the State with the concurrence of the municipalities. Every effort is made by the Government to attract to these schools the most promising youth of the nation, and to surround them with influences that shall insure their devotion to the Republic.

The communal colleges follow, nominally, the same program as the lycées, but, as a rule, do not maintain the complete secondary course of study. Under recent regulations, the colleges are assuming more and more the character of local high schools similar to the higher primary schools.

The following table shows the enrollment of students in the lycées and colleges for boys for the latest year reported:

Enrollment in public secondary schools for boys, 1910.

Institutions.	Number.	Students.
State schools:		
Lycées.....	111	60,618
Colleges.....	231	36,173
Total.....	342	96,791

THE NEW PROGRAM.

Current discussions pertaining to secondary education relate chiefly to changes in the curriculum as determined by the program of 1902, which has been under constant criticism ever since its adoption.¹

The official program, it should be recalled, is uniform for all public secondary schools, and since it leads to the baccalaureate examination, it virtually controls the course of instruction in private secondary schools and therefore determines the intellectual character of the nation itself.

Slight modifications have been made in the program from time to time, but none so important as that authorized by the *arrêté* of November 15, 1912.² This relates to the literary subjects which form the center of liberal education, as the term has long been interpreted in France. The program of 1902 was intended to give scientific studies equal value with the literary or classical; the new program indicates a disposition to give slight preference to the latter. The

¹ See Rep. Commissioner of Educ., 1902, Vol. I, ch. 4, pp. 691-693.

² See Bulletin Administratif, 1912, No. 2054 (Nov. 23), p. 945.

changes pertain mainly to the division of time assigned to French, ancient languages, and modern languages. By grouping the subjects, it is possible to allow some choice as to the language that shall receive chief attention without material change in the division of time between different groups. Similar combinations had already been authorized for the cognate branches, mathematics, physics, and natural sciences, by an *arrêté* of May 18, 1912,¹ and in the extension of the group system it has been found possible to increase slightly the amount of time given to language studies.

The chief significance of this change lies in the adoption of the group classification, but it has also other purposes which illustrate certain principles of general application. By common accord, teachers, parents, and physicians who were consulted on the subject urged some reduction in the number of recitation hours required by the program of 1902 and in the number of different subjects between which the time of the pupil was divided and his attention distributed; hence, slight reductions have been effected in these particulars, especially in the lower classes. By the combination of allied subjects it has been possible to arrange so that in the earlier years the pupil remains longer under the direction of one master, whose essential task it is to teach him how to study. As the pupil advances in age, on the contrary, he will be left more to his personal effort and to the habit of relying upon his own powers. It is pointed out that the combinations impress upon students the actual relations between subjects and, further, that by keeping a group of subjects under one authority or direction the system meets the views of associations of professors and of parents, who have urged upon the legislature and in the press the importance of emphasizing the rôle of principal professors. This arrangement also leaves the teacher freedom to give most time to the subjects in which his pupils are weakest or which for any cause need special attention at a given time.

The persistent efforts of the literary forces in France to preserve the culture influences of the classics in the secondary schools have had their effect in the readjustment of the program. The grouping of language studies emphasizes anew the pursuit of Latin as a means of perfecting the student in his native language, which, in the opinion of French professors and the literati of the country, is its main purpose. An endeavor has also been made to prevent further decline in the study of Greek, by creating a classical division in which this language is obligatory.

¹ See *Bulletin Administratif*, 1912, No. 2028 (May 18), pp. 710-734.

The new program, which goes into effect October, 1913, is indicated by the following tabular outline of subjects and weekly distribution of time:

Program of French Secondary Schools (Lycées).¹

[Preparatory division (average ages, 7 to 8 years) common to all pupils.]

Subjects.	Hours per week.	
	First year.	Second year.
French.....	9	7
Moral and civic instruction.....	(2)	
Writing.....	2½	2½
Modern languages.....		2
Historic narrations.....	1	1
Geography.....	1½	1½
Arithmetic.....	3	3
Object lessons.....	1	1
Drawing.....	1	1
Singing.....	1	1
Total.....	20	20

¹ See official circular, Bulletin administratif du Ministère de l'Instruction publique, 1912, No. 2054 (Nov. 23), pp. 945-955.

² Combined with French history and geography.

Program of Secondary Instruction.

FIRST CYCLE.

[Duration, 4 years, from sixième to troisième (sixth class to third class.)]

SIXIÈME ET CINQUIÈME (SIXTH AND FIFTH CLASSES).

Division A (classical):	Hours.	Division B (nonclassical):	Hours.
French.....	6	French.....	6
Latin.....	10	Penmanship.....	1
Modern languages.....	5	Modern languages.....	5
History and geography.....	3	History and geography.....	3
Arithmetic.....	2	Arithmetic.....	3
Natural sciences.....	1	Natural sciences.....	2
Drawing.....	2	Drawing.....	2
Total.....	23	Total.....	22

QUATRIÈME (FOURTH CLASS).

Subjects.	Division A.		Division B.
	Section with Greek.	Section without Greek.	Section without Latin and Greek.
Literary subjects:			
French, Latin, Greek, Ethics ¹	13	10	6
Modern languages.....	3	4	4
History and geography.....	3	3	3
Mathematics.....	2	2	2 ½
Natural sciences.....	1	1	1
Drawing.....	1	2	2
Physics and chemistry.....			1½
Total.....	23	22	22

¹ La Morale.

Mathematics, in this section, includes bookkeeping and geometric drawing.

*Program of Secondary Instruction—Continued.***FIRST CYCLE—Continued.****TROISIÈME (THIRD CLASS).**

Subjects.	Division A.		Division B.
	Section with Greek	Section without Greek.	Section without Latin and Greek.
Literary subjects:			
French, Latin, Greek, Ethics ¹ .	14	11	7
Modern languages.	3	4	5
History and geography.	3	3	3
Mathematics.	3	3	5
Geometric drawing.			
Drawing.	1	2	2
Physics and chemistry.			
Natural sciences.			1
Total.	24	23	24½

¹ La Morale.**SECOND CYCLE.**

(Duration, 3 years.)

SECONDE (SECOND CLASS).

Subjects.	Section A: Greek, Latin,	Section B: Latin, modern languages.	Section C: Latin, sciences.	Section D: Sciences, modern languages.
Literary subjects:				
French, Latin, Greek.	13	8	8	4
Ancient and modern history and geography.	4½	4½	1 3	3
Modern languages.	2	7	2	7
Mathematics.	2	2	4½	4½
Physics and chemistry.			2½	2½
Laboratory exercises.			2	2
Drawing.	2	2	2	2
Geometric drawing.			2	2
Total.	23½	23½	26	27

¹ Ancient history omitted.**PREMIÈRE (FIRST CLASS).**

Subjects.	Section A: Greek, Latin.	Section B: Latin, modern languages.	Section C: Latin, sciences.	Section D: Sciences, modern languages.
Literary subjects:				
French, Latin, Greek.	14	7	6	3
Ancient and modern history and geography.	5	5	1 3	1 3
Modern languages.	2	7	2	7
Mathematics.	2	2	5	5
Physics and chemistry.			6	6
Laboratory exercises.			2	2
Drawing.			1	1
Total.	23	21	25	27

¹ Ancient history omitted.² Also, optional, 2 hours for mathematics, and 2 hours for drawing.³ Also, optional, 2 hours for literary subjects; 2 hours for mathematics; and 2 hours for drawing.

Classes of philosophy and mathematics.¹

Subjects.	Philosophy.		Mathematics.	
	Section A.	Section B.	Section A.	Section B.
Philosophy.....	<i>Hours.</i> 2 8	<i>Hours.</i> 2 8	<i>Hours.</i> 3	<i>Hours.</i> 3
Do.....	2 9	2 9		
Greek and Latin.....	3 4			
Latin.....		3 2		
Modern languages.....	3 2	3	2	3
History.....	3	3	3	3
Mathematics.....	2	2	8	8
Physics and chemistry.....	3	3	5	5
Natural sciences.....	2	2	2	2
Practical exercises in sciences.....			2	
Drawing.....	3 2	3 2	4 2+2	4 2+2
Hygiene ²				
Total.....	6 18½	7 21½	42+2	48+2

¹ Unchanged.² During 1 semester.³ Optional.⁴ 2 hours optional.⁵ Twelve lectures of one hour each.⁶ Plus 8 hours optional.⁷ Plus 4 hours optional.

SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

The establishment of public secondary schools (*lycées* and *colleges*) for girls, which date from 1880, was regarded at the time as a hazardous venture on the part of the Government, but the schools have prospered and their patronage has steadily increased. In the scheme of study for these institutions, no effort was made to duplicate that of the *lycées* for boys, its distinctive character being determined by reference to the careers, social and professional, upon which the students would naturally enter. In time, new demands arose by the increase in the number of young women desiring to enter the university faculties, but who were obliged to prepare for the admission examination by private tuition. As a means of correcting this injustice it was determined in 1909 to open in a few *lycées* for girls, a special course assimilated to that of the *lycées* for boys, and, like the latter, preparing for the bachelor's diploma.

As a result of this experiment the question of unifying the two orders of secondary education has been seriously discussed during the current year. The proposition marks a stage in the progress of higher education for women which derives special interest from the death of M. Camille Sée, author of the law creating *lycées* for girls and an enthusiastic supporter of their special programs and aims.¹

¹ This distinguished author and legislator died Jan. 22, 1913, in the ninetieth year of his age.

Enrollment in public secondary schools for girls.

Institutions.	1905		1910	
	Number.	Students.	Number.	Students.
Lycées (France).....	42	14,777	48	17,641
Colleges (France and Algeria).....	50	8,679	68	11,592
Secondary courses (France and Algeria).....	69	7,379	58	5,756
Total.....	161	30,835	174	34,989

HIGHER EDUCATION.

Provision for higher education in France is made by universities and special schools. The former number at present 16, including the University of Algiers, which was organized in 1909. The development of the provincial universities of France continues to excite interest and satisfaction, because it increases intellectual activity throughout the country and multiplies its scientific forces. Paris remains, however, the chief center of learning and research, drawing to itself, as will be seen by the distribution of students, shown in the table below, one-third of the entire student body and two-thirds of the foreign students. From the distribution of students by faculties, it appears that law attracts one-third the total number; medicine, one-fifth; the faculties of letters and of sciences, nearly equal registration.

Distribution of students in State universities and university schools, January 15, 1911.

Location.	Men.			Women.			General total of students.		
	French.	For- eign.	Total.	French.	For- eign.	Total.	French.	For- eign.	Total.
Paris.....	13,018	2,099	15,117	953	1,168	2,121	13,971	3,267	17,238
Aix ¹	527	33	560	8	8	535	33	568	
Amiens ²	72	1	73	14	5	19	86	6	92
Angers ²	101	1	102	-----	-----	-----	101	1	102
Besançon.....	197	23	220	8	11	19	205	34	239
Bordeaux.....	2,453	31	2,484	124	12	136	2,577	43	2,620
Caen.....	621	10	631	54	6	60	675	16	691
Clermont-Ferrand.....	231	2	233	42	3	45	273	5	278
Dijon.....	891	55	946	80	17	97	971	72	1,043
Grenoble.....	806	214	1,020	77	175	252	883	389	1,272
Lille.....	1,594	51	1,645	142	14	156	1,736	65	1,801
Limoges ²	84	-----	84	23	-----	23	107	-----	107
Lyon.....	2,773	142	2,915	152	24	176	2,925	166	3,091
Marseille ¹	576	21	597	95	4	99	671	25	696
Montpellier.....	1,586	234	1,820	58	150	208	1,644	384	2,028
Nancy.....	1,333	410	1,743	24	119	143	1,357	529	1,886
Nantes ²	315	2	317	3	-----	3	318	2	320
Poitiers.....	1,085	2	1,087	28	-----	28	1,113	2	1,115
Rheims ²	63	68	20	-----	-----	20	88	-----	88
Rennes.....	1,491	6	1,497	68	8	76	1,559	14	1,573
Rouen ²	92	5	97	4	2	6	96	7	103
Toulouse.....	2,483	231	2,714	102	48	150	2,585	279	2,864
Tours ²	72	2	74	18	-----	18	90	2	92
Alger.....	1,160	32	1,192	84	7	91	1,244	39	1,283
Total.....	33,629	3,607	37,236	2,181	1,773	3,954	35,810	5,380	41,190

¹ Aix-Marseille constitute one university; the faculties of law and letters being at Aix, the faculties of sciences and medicine at Marseille.

² Seat of university schools.

State universities—Distribution of students by faculties, January 15, 1912.

University faculties and schools.	Men.			Women.			Total.
	French.	For-eign.	Total.	French.	For-eign.	Total.	
Law.....	15,774	1,111	16,885	61	81	142	17,027
Medicine.....	6,648	752	7,400	357	508	865	8,265
Sciences.....	4,761	1,168	5,929	357	177	534	6,463
Letters.....	3,421	694	4,115	1,184	1,010	2,194	6,309
Pharmacy.....	1,296	22	1,318	38	2	40	1,358
Schools of medicine: ¹							
Medicine.....	1,365	23	1,388	116	18	134	1,522
Pharmacy.....	246	3	249	1	—	1	250
Total.....	33,511	3,773	37,284	2,114	1,796	3,910	41,194

¹ Not included in the universities.

REORGANIZATION OF MEDICAL STUDIES.

The topic of chief discussion during the year in respect to university matters was the decree of November 29, 1911, reorganizing medical studies.¹ The existing order of studies authorized by decree of January 11, 1909, is not changed, but the course of instruction is extended on both the theoretic and practical sides and with particular regard to specialties. Hospital service is made an obligatory part of the entire course and is included in the final examinations for the diploma. While this obligation meets with general approval on the part of the profession, it raises serious question as to the means for its practical realization. For example, in the discussion of this proposition in the Chamber of Deputies it was stated that even in Paris, which is noted for its ample hospital provision, it would be impossible to accommodate the 3,000 students subject at present to the obligation, and much more impossible when the number should be increased, as was anticipated, to 5,000. On the contrary, many of the provincial faculties have hospital accommodations, as well as ample laboratories and demonstration halls, which are not utilized because students are wanting. A more uniform distribution of students was declared to be desirable, but this again is impossible so long as Paris and a few other universities maintain their distinction.²

The requirements for admission to the medical faculties and the duration of the studies is unchanged by the new decree. All candidates for admission to the medical faculties must have completed the course of secondary studies and have obtained the bachelor's degree. This requirement applies to foreign students who wish to practice

¹ For the text of the decree see *Bulletin administratif*, No. 2007 (Dec. 9), 1911, pp. 1199-1210.

² For analyses of the decree see *De la réorganisation des études médicales*, by Docteur X—and reply by P. Vuillemin. *Revue internationale de l'enseignement*, Vol. LIX, No. 8 (Aug. 15), 1912, pp. 111-127.

medicine in France. In addition to the bachelor's diploma the applicant must have the special certificate in physics, chemistry, and natural sciences (P. C. N.), secured by a year of study in the faculty of sciences. The course of medical studies is five years, with a nine months' session each year.

The appropriations by the State in 1911 for the universities and special schools under the minister of public instruction were as follows:

Government appropriations for higher institutions (ministry of public instruction), 1911.¹

Institutions.	For the teaching personnel.	For material.	Total.	United States equivalent.
Universities.....	<i>Francs.</i> 11,989,115	<i>Francs.</i> 3,058,927	<i>Francs.</i> 15,048,042	\$3,009,608
College of France.....	513,000	77,560	590,560	118,112
Museum of Natural History.....	748,450	318,640	1,067,090	213,418
Practical School of Higher Studies.....	275,000	101,000	376,000	75,200
School of Archives.....	65,500	14,000	79,500	15,900
Superior Normal School.....	72,925	204,000	276,925	55,385
School of Living Oriental Languages.....	153,150	22,300	175,450	35,090
School of Athens.....	53,000	70,000	123,000	24,600
School of Rome.....	38,500	36,760	75,260	15,052
Total.....	13,908,640	3,903,187	17,811,827	3,562,365

¹ Chambre des Députés. Rapport de la commission du budget général de l'exercice, 1912. Ministère de l'instruction publique et des beaux-arts. Pp. 766-774.

The total appropriation by the State for the service of public instruction in 1911 was 290,460,931 francs (\$58,092,186). Of this amount, 224,776,306 francs (\$44,955,261), or 77.4 per cent, went for the service of primary education. The total amount carried in the estimates for public instruction for 1912 was 297,944,599 francs (\$59,588,919).

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND.

GENERAL SURVEY.

Switzerland presents a striking example of a small nation holding a creditable place in the economic struggle with larger and more powerful nations, by reason in great part of the complete provision for the education of its people and the practical character of that education. The total population of the federated Cantons is 3,741,971, about the same as that of the State of Massachusetts, and is comprised in an area of 15,976 square miles. The largest of the Cantons is Berne, with a population of 642,744, less than the city of Boston; Zurich stands second, with a population of 500,679. The population of 13 of the remaining Cantons ranges from 116,000 to 515,000, and of the smaller Cantons from 13,700 to 76,000. Hence as areas of school administration these divisions are properly compared with cities of the United States.

Two important principles were settled by the constitution of the Federal Republic (adopted May 29, 1874). Every one of the 25 Cantons is "to provide sufficient elementary education" free to all children without prejudice to "freedom of faith and conscience," but with this restriction: Each division has entire management of its schools. This independence is indicated by the varied organization of the several systems, some of which reflect French influences; others, German and Italian influences; but in all there is evident a common purpose, namely, to develop every order of ability among the people and to afford adequate preparation for every calling, professional or industrial, that may be exercised in the Republic.

The independent control of education, guaranteed by the constitution, is jealously guarded by the local government; at the same time the need of Federal aid in this work has been recognized, and in 1902 an amendment to the constitution was authorized by popular vote which established the obligation of the Federal Government to subsidize primary schools. The right of cantonal control was reaffirmed in the amendment. The amount of the Federal subsidy is fixed at the uniform rate of 60 centimes (12 cents) per capita of the population, excepting in eight cantons in which, by reason of special difficulties, the rate is increased by 20 centimes (4 cents). This subsidy, which in 1910 amounted to \$450,000, has aided greatly in equalizing the school provision of the country.

The military system adopted in 1875 provided for recruit examinations, and these have fostered education by exciting keen rivalry among the Cantons in respect to the success of their youth in the tests.

The provision of primary schools is ample throughout the Republic, and, without exact uniformity, the regulations respecting schools of this grade are practically the same. Children enter the primary school at 6 or 7 years of age and remain for seven or eight years. Continuation schools are universally maintained, and in 16 Cantons attendance upon these schools is also compulsory.

In Switzerland, as in European countries generally, secondary education is continuous with university education; but in the Republic there is no marked distinction of social classes between the pupils of primary and secondary schools, and the programs are so arranged that pupils from the former may pass over to the latter at ages varying from 10 to 12 years.

STATISTICAL SUMMARY.

The following statistics taken from the latest yearbook¹ indicate the extent to which the people of Switzerland are reached by the ample provision for education:

¹ *Jahrbuch des unterrichtswesens in der Schweiz, 1910, von Dr. jur Albert Huber, Staatschreiber des cantons Zurich* [published in 1912], pp. 216-239.

Institutions and pupils.

Classification of institutions.	Number.	Pupils.
Kindergartens.....	1,159	51,597
Primary schools.....	4,704	535,286
Higher primary.....	652	56,103
Continuation schools (general and vocational).....	3,417	¹ 101,947
Normal schools.....		3,645
Seminaries for girls.....		1,901
Vocational schools (Berufsschulen).....		13,067
Secondary schools (Mittel).....	41	9,615
Federal Polytechnic Institute.....	1	2,436
Universities.....	7	8,671

¹ Not including 9,638 young men in the classes maintained for recruits.

From the foregoing table it will be seen that the primary and higher primary schools enroll nearly 595,000 pupils, or about 16 per cent of the population; the enrollment in continuation classes of all orders, 101,947, raises this ratio to 18.6 per cent; that is, nearly one-fifth of the people preparing for the practical work of life.

The pupils in secondary or "Mittel" schools, under which head are included gymnasia, lycées, and higher schools for girls, are drawn chiefly from the professional and higher official circles; the students in the secondary technical schools will be the future foremen and leaders of industry. The total of pupils in these two classes of schools is 24,583, equivalent to 1 student for every 152 inhabitants pursuing studies up to the level of the universities and higher technical schools.

CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

The striking fact brought out in the table is the large number of young people in the continuation schools and in schools which are distinctively vocational or trade schools (Berufsschulen). The elementary schools and the continuation and vocational schools based upon them make up a system of popular education unsurpassed for completeness and efficiency, and which has enabled Switzerland to withstand the industrial competition of neighboring nations. The continuation schools or classes either complete the elementary subjects of the primary schools or give vocational training. The courses of instruction are generally arranged for two years, covering six periods a week during the winter. Continuation schools that are distinctly vocational differ little from trade schools, with which they are often classed.

The trade schools are established by local effort, either public or private, and, carefully adapted to local demands, they are usually one-trade schools, but sometimes have a polytechnic character. They are directed to enterprises and institutions for (a) art and indus-

trial training, (b) domestic and vocational training for women, (c) commercial education, and (d) agricultural education. Although local in scope, the national importance of trade schools is recognized by Federal grants, which are always conditioned upon the local contributions—cantonal, municipal, individual; hence the Federal aid acts not only as a stimulus but tends to prevent the multiplication of feeble schools, of which complaint is frequently made.

In the present interest in vocational training Switzerland commands attention as one of the chief exemplars of this form of training. This distinction the Republic shares with Austria and Germany, but in respect to the local adaptations of the schools and the combination of civic and ethical instruction with the technical training, the Swiss schools are preeminent; for this reason they are especially instructive to other republics which depend for their political security upon the civic intelligence as well as the industrial efficiency of all the citizens. This principle was emphasized in the twenty-second congress of the Swiss association of teachers (Schweizerischer Lehrerverein) which assembled at Basle in October, 1911. Civic education was the prominent topic of discussion by the congress, on the ground that "in a democracy where the people rule every child must be prepared for his duty as a citizen. He must be taught to understand and love his country." This preparation, it was said, "is already made to some extent, but it appears more and more insufficient." It was unanimously resolved by the congress that civic education is an "imperative obligation for every class of schools."

EXPENDITURE FOR EDUCATION.

The current expenditure for public education in 1911 and the amount from each contributing source were, in round numbers, as follows:

Sources.	Amount.		From each source.
	Frances.	United States equivalent.	
Cantons.....	38,600,000	\$7,720,000	44.1
Communes.....	42,200,000	8,440,000	48.2
Federal Government.....	6,700,000	1,340,000	7.7
Total.....	87,500,000	17,500,000	100.0

To the current expenditure should be added 1,900,000 francs (\$380,000) for buildings for middle schools, trade schools, and higher institutions, making a sum total of 89,400,000 francs (\$17,880,000).

CHAPTER XXI.

EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

By W. CARSON RYAN, Jr.

Editorial Division, Bureau of Education.

CONTENTS : I. German school reform ; II. The proposed Saxon school law ; III. The religious question ; IV. Continuation schools ; V. Education for citizenship ; VI. The teaching profession.

I. GERMAN SCHOOL REFORM.

Germany, like every other civilized nation, is astir with the spirit of a restless changing life that is reflected in the activity of the schools. The broadening sense of human brotherhood and the deepening feeling of social responsibility, as well as the better-recognized scientific and industrial development of our time, have wrought a veritable transformation in the aim and scope of public education. Nowhere is this more keenly felt than in Germany; yet so far the highly developed organization that is characteristic of German institutions in general has prevented anything other than an orderly change in the school system. There has been no revolution; and even the vigorous movement for "school reform" that now holds the stage in Germany is not revolutionary in the usual sense of the term, since it is essentially reform from within, based on the principle of evolution from the less to the more perfect type. Only by realizing this may we grasp the true significance of the present situation in Germany, where a school system which to a foreign observer seems unprogressive in certain particulars is wonderfully progressive in others.

The German educational system has been allowed to develop, rather than to make sudden and violent upheavals; for this reason it appears to be slow in adopting new ideas when it is generally only reluctant to accept what is new until it is shown to be in the line of organic development. No matter how ardently the German educator throws himself into the movement for economic and social uplift through education, he continually reminds himself that "we must never lose our connection with the past of pedagogic development. Only that which develops organically can be perfect."¹ Hence the frequent

¹ Petersen, P. Schulreform. In *Zeitschrift für Kinderforschung*, 18, pp. 97-101.

charge that the German schools are too conservative, urged more recently in the case of the secondary institutions and in the field of school administration in general. Thus the statement is frequently heard that the separate continuation school system as it has developed in Prussia and other German States is due to conservatism on the part of the educators. So far as this criticism is directed at the teachers themselves it is scarcely justified, unless the teaching force has changed essentially in the past score of years, for the teachers of the present generation are more apt to be charged with being too advanced than otherwise.

There are at least two ways in which educational ideals may be formulated into practical demands: Either in proposed legislation, where one group asks as much as it dares and the other group concedes as little as it can, or in definite programs agreed upon by organizations of the teachers. The attempt to write into law some of the aspirations of German school reformers will be discussed below under the proposed Saxon school law. The teachers themselves in their meetings have frequently drawn up articles of faith, and one of the most recent of such pronouncements, that adopted by the Society for the Promotion of Popular Education at its Wiesbaden meeting, is here given:

1. The school must stand in the most intimate possible relation to the life of the people and be the connecting link between life in the family and life in the State.

2. The ideal of education that is to be realized in the school and express itself in the content of education must correspond to the demands of the cultural life, and the actual work of education must correspond to the demands of scientific teaching method.

3. The school of our time must give heed to the ideal subjects as well as to material subjects; it must give special attention to technical training without neglecting the demands of the life of culture.

4. Since the child when he becomes a man must play an active part in the duties of national life, subject matter that is "national" must be a central part of the curriculum; and since the duties of national life are embodied in the State, training for State citizenship must be especially fostered.

5. The work of education should bring the pupil so directly into touch with actual things that his educative impulse will awaken and those qualities develop with which he may gain education by self-activity.

6. In the preliminary educational process of the first six years, as opposed to the later special training, the chief aim must be the development of the various abilities into definite forces for good, in order that a harmonious personality may develop. In the special training that follows these special abilities must be particularly fostered.

These are, of course, general demands. At the same meeting another set of resolutions was adopted specifying more particularly what changes were immediately necessary to begin carrying out the general program. First and foremost, this set of resolutions demanded the abolition of all schools that tended to foster class

distinction and the introduction of the general common school—which, contrary to the general impression, does not exist in Germany, at least in the sense in which it is understood in the United States. “The basis of the whole school system should be the same for all classes of the population—the general common school,” declare the resolutions, “and on this common basis higher institutions should build.”

Educators are by no means alone in this insistent demand for the genuine “Allgemeine Volksschule.” Thus Richard Nordhausen, in a recent issue of *Der Tag*, argues that the real trouble with the “Gymnasium” is that the material it receives is dependent on the ability of the parents to pay rather than on the ability of the students to do the work. “All the children of our people ought to go through the elementary school together,” he says. “Then the more highly gifted ones should be selected and assigned to the Gymnasium, without regard to the financial ability of the parents,” and the others provided for according to their special gifts.

All efforts at reform in the Gymnasium are wasted so long as such a division is not made. We are wasting precious strength in sacrificing our time to little decorative details of the structure, while foundation walls and lower stories are rotting away.

II. THE PROPOSED SAXON SCHOOL LAW.

The proposed new school law for Saxony furnishes one of the best indications of the year as to what the school men themselves wish to have, and its importance is enhanced rather than otherwise by the fact that it ultimately failed of enactment. Teachers and others have for years urged the enactment of an adequate school law to replace the outworn legislation of 1873.

It is true that even the original draft of the bill, and the form in which it was accepted by the Liberal majority in the Lower Chamber, did not satisfy the teachers. They wished to see the general free common school specifically provided for; they desired a definite pronouncement on the question of improving the religious instruction in the schools; they sought to obtain something in the way of independence from the church, if only the abolition of the unpopular clerical supervision; they hoped for some definite recognition of the principle of the “Arbeitschule” as developed by Kerschensteiner and others; they hoped to see recognition of the comparatively new demands of hygiene and sanitary science; they desired to have the principle of the continuation school extended as widely as possible; and there were other items in their bill of particulars. The first draft of the bill answered but few of these demands, but it did answer some of the most important. The Liberals supported the bill, and it passed the Lower Chamber without difficulty, but it was held up in

the Upper Chamber, and long conferences between the two bodies failed to produce any agreement. Thus the proposed law, after long discussion, has failed of enactment.

Ordinarily a rejected law is properly an object of little further consideration; but in the present case the special points upon which differences arose, and the sharp conflict of opinions, together with the acknowledged importance of the whole Saxon situation, make it distinctly worth while to examine the bill in some detail.

The 70 paragraphs of the bill were grouped under five divisions: (1) General statements—object of school, etc.; (2) organization of the common schools; (3) preparation, employment, and legal status of the teachers; (4) administration and supervision of the common schools; (5) provisional regulations and conclusions. The following discussion covers most of the important provisions:

1. *Object*.—The object of the common school is, through instruction, exercise, and training, to develop actively the mental and physical forces of the child and give him the fundamentals of moral and religious education as well as general knowledge and skill necessary for the life of citizenship.

This clause was acceptable to the teachers, but not to the Conservatives. They made it read: "The object of the school is to awaken and to foster love for King and the fatherland, for the Emperor and for the Kingdom."

2. *Subjects of instruction*.—The essential subjects of instruction in the common school are: Religion and morals; German language, with reading and writing; arithmetic; geometry; local geography; history; geography; nature study; singing; drawing; physical training (including games); sewing for the girls. The children shall have some preliminary citizenship training in branches that will adapt themselves to such instruction. The local school authorities are to decide whether domestic science for girls, manual arts for boys, instruction in one or several modern languages and in shorthand, are to be offered, and whether such instruction shall be elective or prescribed.

Organization of the common school.—It is left to the free decision of the local communities to decide whether they will maintain a general common school (*allgemeine Volksschule*), or the several kinds—elementary, intermediate, or higher. Where conditions allow, the common school shall be established as intermediate and not as elementary.

This paragraph was particularly objectionable to the teachers and reformers, because of its attitude toward the "*allgemeine Volksschule*." It will be noted that it left the matter to the local communities and explicitly recognized the three types of school, as at present. The following comment on the provision, from a teacher's journal, will explain the objections of the educators:

Saxony is the only German State which still recognizes the triple division into elementary, intermediate, and higher common schools. There are enormous differences between an "elementary" and an "intermediate" school. If a pupil in an "elementary" country school should desire the same education quantita-

tively as the student of a Leipzig "intermediate" school, with its 8 years, he would have to go 4½ years longer, or until his nineteenth year. The "higher" common school, for which the old law demanded a 10 years' course, has likewise suffered a lamentable decline. Of the 62 "higher" common schools now in existence, attended at most by 3 per cent of the pupils of Saxony, only 6 had a 10 years' course; of the others, 10 had a 9-year course, and 42, or fully two-thirds, had an 8-year course, thus differing in no respect from a well-developed intermediate school. They were and are, in fact, not "higher" common schools but only schools that recognize class distinction.

A resolution embodying this sentiment was passed by a special meeting of the teachers without a dissenting voice.

The continuation-school provisions of the bill were in general considered an advance. They were as follows:

CONTINUATION SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

1. In the continuation school for boys instruction shall be given at least 3 hours every week; where the necessary arrangements can be made, it shall be extended to 4 or 6 hours per week. By order of the local school authorities it may be increased to 12 hours a week.

2. Under exceptional conditions, arrangements may be made by the local authorities for special reasons to have the instruction limited to eight consecutive months of the year, provided during this time at least 126 hours of instruction are given.

3. The instruction will take place in the daytime on work days. During the summer semester no instruction shall be given after 8 o'clock in the evening, and during the winter term none may be given after 7 o'clock. After this time, and on Sundays and holidays—but not until after the close of the morning church service—under exceptional conditions special instruction may be given in so far as it is in excess of 6 hours per week, in not more than 2 hours weekly; but in general compulsory continuation instruction shall not be thus given. Gymnasium instruction may also be given in the evening.

4. The number of pupils in a class shall as a rule not exceed 30.

5. In larger schools special classes for defectives shall be formed.

CONTINUATION SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

1. In the continuation school for girls the instruction shall be at least 2 hours weekly in the 2-year course and in the 1-year course at least 4 hours per week.

2. Other provisions applying to the boys' continuation schools with respect to time of instruction, number of hours, and number of students in a class, as well as the formation of special classes for defectives, are considered to apply to girls as well as boys.

The training of continuation-school teachers is provided for as follows:

1. An applicant for a position as head of a continuation school shall have passed the examinations previously defined and have taken successfully one of the special courses for continuation-school teaching established by the education department.

2. Special teachers may be allowed to give instruction in the continuation schools if they show that they possess the requisite general knowledge and the special qualifications for teaching.

3. But special teachers shall only be installed as principals when they have passed an examination before the board of examiners consisting of a commissioner from the department of education, and of accredited continuation-school directors, teachers, and technical experts selected by the chief school officers.

No feature of the proposed legislation caused more discussion than the various religious provisions. Supervision by the clergy would have been in part abolished by the bill, but the denominational principle was strictly upheld in school organization. Even the auxiliary schools were to be divided denominationally when possible. The teachers apparently did not seek to alter this condition, but merely sought to put religious instruction on a somewhat different plane. A paragraph which caused bitter discussion was as follows:

The religious instruction to be imparted to the children of the different Christian faiths shall be imparted in the spirit of the particular church, without obligation to the letter of formulated creeds, through living guidance into the life and teachings of Christ with the aid of the Holy Scriptures.

The religious vow to be taken by the teacher was changed. Instead of taking a special oath and forfeiting his position if he left the faith, the teacher was required to accept a new vow, which read:

I promise before God that I shall teach the Gospel of Christ as it is contained in the Holy Scriptures and as revealed in the first unchanged Augsburg Confession, as well as in the two catechisms of Luther, to the best of my knowledge and belief, pure and undefiled.

In some respects the proposed law was distinctly modern. It recognized the need of special training for abnormal children and made special provision therefor. Special or auxiliary schools or classes were to be formed. Vicious or criminally disposed children whose presence in the classroom constituted a menace to their comrades were to be segregated and given special instruction by the school authorities if institutional care was not available. A similar obligation was imposed by the State in the case of children physically incapacitated, but the State stood willing to render aid to the communities in carrying out this and the previous provisions if necessary.

In the important matter of free tuition the bill marked a partial step in advance, to the extent of making free tuition optional with the communities, but this was hardly satisfactory to teachers who knew that in Prussia and Oldenburg free tuition was mandatory.

Some effort was made to reduce further the number of pupils assignable to a single teacher. The maximum, previously 60, was reduced to 50, to take effect within five years; and after ten years from the date of enactment no two-class school was to contain more than 80 pupils.

It may well be asked how it came about that a bill so mildly progressive as to be far from satisfactory to the teachers and reformers should prove too radical for the Conservatives in the Upper Chamber of the Saxon Parliament. The attitude of the teachers was summed up by a writer in the *Allgemeine Deutsche Lehrerzeitung* in these words:

The bill does much for the continuation schools. For the teacher of the regular schools it has a few rather nonessential advantages. For the common school itself it is silent on almost all the fundamental questions. It rejects the general common school; it does not free the school from the domination of the church; it affords a slight reduction in the number of pupils to a teacher and does not demand obligatory free tuition. Finally, it does not give the school system the necessary independence through the creation of a separate ministry of education.

Yet the teachers were willing to accept the bill as it was. Why, then, did it not pass? A summary of points upon which the discussion raged most hotly may answer the question. These were four: (1) The denominational instruction; (2) the religious vow to be taken by the teacher; (3) the question of free tuition; (4) the general common school.

Although the teachers professed themselves dissatisfied with what the bill granted under all of these heads, the concessions were apparently more than the Conservatives felt they could allow. The latter declare, in explaining the failure of the bill, that the teachers, led by the younger and more advanced set, made radical demands that could not be granted. Says the *Conservative Correspondence for the Saxon Kingdom*:

Agitators and fanatics held the ascendancy; extravagant demands were made in extravagant form; young fellows just entering life with their Nietzsche and Haeckel still undigested in their brains thought they could foist their youthful schemes upon the Saxon people.

To which a Saxon correspondent of the *Berliner Tageblatt* replies that he saw no 20-year-old youths among the working committees of the teachers' organization. He insists that the religious provisions were not the main cause of the failure to agree, but rather the proposal of free tuition.

The Conservatives did not want at any price the provision of free school tuition that has so long existed in Prussia. The Upper Chamber refused to accept any proposition which would make the higher classes of the school open to every one without pay.

In justice to the opponents of the bill it should be said that some of the educators themselves do not altogether absolve the teachers from blame in their management of the campaign. They suggest that the expression of socialistic and anticlerical ideas by some of

the more radical of the teachers aroused a mistrust on the part of the Conservatives which made them wary of granting what seemed to be distinctly moderate proposals.

The more careful observers regret the fate of the bill because of the effect it may have in other German States where important school legislation is pending. Thus Brunswick has a new school law under consideration. In this case the teachers are by no means satisfied with what is proposed. They feel especially disappointed over the refusal to grant their request for a ministry of education, with a professional educator at its head.

III. THE RELIGIOUS QUESTION.

Whether or not the religious question was the main cause of the defeat of the Saxon law, it is certainly one of the most troublesome questions before Germany to-day. The question is at the same time so delicate that it is practically impossible for an outside observer to present the issues without danger of misunderstanding. Yet no survey of education in Germany for the year can properly omit some statement of the problem of the relation of church and school. The controversy in Saxony over clerical supervision, teacher's religious vow, etc., is but one of many indications of current religious feeling in Germany.

It needs to be remembered, first of all, that education in the Empire, and more particularly in Prussia, is for historical and other reasons regularly found in intimate connection with the church. The schools are in the main denominationally religious despite the growth of the so-called "Simultanschulen" of recent years. The children are separated rigidly according to the religious faith of the parents. To one unfamiliar with this fundamental fact the Prussian figures are surprising. Of the 6,572,000 school children in Prussia 3,815,000 are in Protestant schools, 2,383,000 in Roman Catholic schools, and the comparatively small number of 368,565 in the "Simultanschulen," or nonsectarian schools, where the pupils take most of the subjects in common but receive the religious instruction separately in the faith to which they belong. Again, it must not be forgotten that religion is the one constant subject in the curriculum of German schools. It appears everywhere, except in the continuation schools, as a leading school subject. These facts rightly considered will tend to give pause to anyone who may feel that the question of the relation of church and state in Germany with respect to the schools is easy of solution.

It is in the question of administrative control that the problem touches the schools most vitally. "Shall church or state control the school?" asks Johannes Tews, secretary of the German Teachers'

Association, in an address on the subject "State school or church school."¹ Herr Tews attempts to analyze the attitude of political parties and leading individuals on the question of state or church control of education. He disclaims any attempt to put forward his own opinions or the opinions of others hastily expressed, but proposes to confine himself to authenticated and "constantly recurring" statements of party policy. He reviews in some detail the party programs. The Center group, by its platform of 1871, demands "protection of the rights of the religious organizations against the attacks of legislation by the State." The German-Conservatives (1892) take their stand for the "denominational Christian common school." The National Liberals (1911) demand—

complete assurance of the inalienable rights of the state toward the church in the domain of the school; cooperation of the religious organizations in such a way that the state remains in control of the school and the teacher is independent of the clergy.

The advanced Liberals (1910) demand—

independence of instruction from the church; abolition of clerical supervision; the general common school without denominational separation.

The Social-Democrats (1891) insist upon "secularizing the school and compulsory attendance at a common public school." The Social Democracy is thus the only party, according to Tews, that demands monopoly by the state.

In analyzing the utterances of men responsible for party policy, Herr Tews credits the Center with the belief that the church alone is justified in imparting education. He quotes prominent Catholics to prove his assertion. Schädler (1904): "The secret of education is love. But can love be felt for an abstraction? And the state is an abstraction!" Other similar statements are cited that tend to question frankly the right and ability of the state to dominance in education. That the Center and the Conservatives agree in advocating clerical control is generally acknowledged,² though obviously there are widely varying shades of opinion as to how far this control shall be exerted or insisted upon in practice.

Herr Tews himself refuses to argue the right of the state to educational control, on the ground that the state has already sufficiently maintained that right.

The state does not need to demonstrate its right to educate; it has already amply demonstrated it. This much is true—not every state can educate. There have been in the past, and there still are to-day, types of government to which we can not ascribe educational functions. But in Germany this type is, fortunately, past.

¹ Printed in *Pädagogische Zeitung*, 41, 1031–1035 and 1055–1061.

² See Dr. Brandi's reminiscent article, "Unterrichtsverwaltung und Schulwesen in Preussen," *Preussische Jahrbücher*, Oct., 1912, vol. 150, p. 17.

He also quotes Friedrich Paulsen:

If we survey the course of educational progress, two fundamental principles stand forth: One is the complete secularization of the system of education; the other is the steady extension of education through the schools to ever-widening circles—the democratization of education, if you will.

That Prussia has not developed in the way indicated by Prof. Paulsen, Herr Tews admits, but reminds us that Prussia is not an island, and will, sooner or later, have to give up her "splendid isolation."

There is also a third standpoint from which the church and school question in Germany may be viewed, according to Tews—"that neither the state nor the church has control of the school, but that the school is established and maintained by a free school community." Though recognizing that this attitude finds realization in parts of Germany and more particularly in other countries, he dismisses it from consideration as a practical basis of operation. "It [the local community] can never fill the place of the state in education," he maintains, "and is only possible where all strata of the population are equally well educated."

IV. CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

In the field of continuation-school education the two significant points of recent educational history are, first, the extension of the principle of compulsory attendance to the continuation schools; and second, the attempt to amplify the scope of the continuation school to include girls as well as boys. With regard to compulsory attendance, conditions are too indefinite to permit of a satisfactory statement at this time; the most that can be said is that the compulsory principle is distinctly recognized in the continuation schools by nearly all the German States, and it is probably only a question of time when it will be an accomplished fact. As to the application of the continuation-school principle to girls, definite progress is reported during the past year, the most notable instance being perhaps the establishment of a compulsory continuation school for girls in the city of Berlin.

The whole vocational question is such a vital one at this time that it seems worth while to give the course of study for sales girls in this school, as worked out by a committee composed of representatives of various lines of business and officially approved by the continuation-school authorities, to go into effect April, 1913. Besides the appropriate technical subjects, others are provided, including economic geography and household arts. The following schedule and outline of courses is slightly abridged:

Subjects and hours per week.

Subjects.	First year.		Second year.		Third year.		Total hours.
	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	
Vocational science ¹	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	150
Science of living.....					1½	1½	60
Arithmetic and bookkeeping.....	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	180
Commercial science and economic geography.....		1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	120
Writing.....	1½						30
Household arts instruction.....	1½	1½	1½	1½		3	180
Total hours per week.....	6	6	6	6	6	6	720

¹ Including German and correspondence.

FIRST YEAR.*Vocational science, including German and correspondence.*

Trade information:

I. Entering a calling. (4 weeks.¹)

Choice of a vocation. Obtaining an apprenticeship.

Significance of the vocation of sales girl.

II. Labor conditions. (14 weeks.)

(a) In the continuation school. Local ordinances; acceptance and dismissal notices; school regulations.

(b) In business. Papers necessary for the sales girl: School certificate, apprenticeship contract, business rules, etc.

(c) Duties toward employer: Looking out for his interests, honesty, punctuality, orderliness, avoidance of disputes, care not to intrude personal matters.

(d) How shall the sales girl keep healthy and well? Daily care of health: Eyes, skin, hair, hands, and teeth.

(e) Employment of leisure time: Exercise, walking, games, study, entertainment.

III. Salesmanship. (18 weeks.)

Entry and dispatch of goods:

(a) Location and equipment of the business.

(b) The stock department and its work: Unpacking, checking orders and statements, labeling, packing the goods, careful addressing, etc.

(c) Sending goods by messenger, wagon, mail, rail, water.

(d) Insuring and clearing goods.

Composition.

Composition consists of various forms, letters, and themes, based on the material of the technical courses, such as: Correspondence with the continuation school, descriptions of local ordinances and school regulations, personal letters about positions obtained, etc., compositions on care of health, railroad and mail facilities, etc.

¹ Figures in parenthesis indicate the time devoted to each division of the subject. The full course is 40 weeks. The difference between this amount and the time assigned is filled at the discretion of the school authorities.

Arithmetic.

Extension of school arithmetic to business needs. The four fundamental operations in whole numbers and fractions, with special reference to selling. Exercises in rapid calculation. Keeping account of personal finances. Most important coins, weights, and measures in world trade. Resolving and reducing fractions. Problems based on care of health. Figuring prices of goods. Percentage.

SECOND YEAR.*Vocational science: Salesmanship.*

1. A satisfactory selling method. (Five weeks.)
 - (a) Receiving the customer.
 - (b) Displaying the goods.
 - (c) Indicating the price.
 - (d) Concluding the sale: Measuring, weighing, counting purchases, making out the sales check; cashbook and its use; payment (in full or on account).
 - (e) Departure of the customer.
2. Difficult cases in selling. (Six weeks.)
 - (a) Attitude toward customers who wish only to look at goods.
 - (b) Waiting on undecided and difficult customers.
 - (c) Waiting on several customers at once.
 - (d) Recourse to other help when a sale threatens to fall through.
 - (e) Attitude toward customer with whom a sale did not take place.
 - (f) Exchanging goods.
 - (g) Attitude toward just and unjust complaints.
3. Tactful demeanor while selling. (Three weeks.)
 - (a) Obligation of uniform courtesy, without regard to the social position of the customer or the amount of the purchase.
 - (b) Treatment of different kinds of customers according to age, social position, and appearance.
 - (c) Attitude of the disengaged sales girls toward each other, toward the sales girl who is waiting on a customer, and toward the customers.
4. A sales girl as adviser of the customer.
 - (a) Value of a thorough knowledge of the goods.
 - (b) Knowledge of present-day tastes and fashions.
 - (c) Adroit showing of the goods.
 - (d) Interesting the customer in goods not asked for (novelties of the season, reduced-price goods, etc.).
 - (e) Sketching desired articles.
 - (f) Warning against false statements.
5. Settlement of accounts: 1. Cash. 2. Mail. 3. Draft. 4. Other means of settlement.
6. Legal information about selling: Obligations of the seller and of the buyer. Selling on approval or with privilege of exchange.

Note.—The theoretical instruction on the detailed processes of salesmanship will be accompanied by practical exercises.

Composition.

Written reports and correspondence based on technical material, together with practice in correct writing of the various markings common to the trade, especially those from foreign countries. Other written reports on selling methods. Billing. Legal questions.

Arithmetic and bookkeeping.

The cashbook. Interest. Invoices. Discount. Price scales. Stock account.

THIRD YEAR.*Vocational science.*

Decoration of the show window. (11 weeks.)

1. Aim and importance of the show window.
2. Interior decoration.
3. Methods of tasteful decoration.
 - (a) Skillful grouping of goods.
 - (b) Color schemes.
 - (c) Illumination, etc.

Legal status of the sales girl. (4 weeks.)

1. Contracts.
2. Giving notice; recommendations; temporary employment; employment on trial.
3. Essentials of the law against unfair competition (obligation of silence).

Economic significance of the retail trade in relation to general trade. (2 weeks.)

Continuation of selling exercises and thorough discussion of questions suggested by the pupils from their own experience.

Science of living.

(17 weeks in conjunction with vocational science.)

I. The sales girl in community life.

1. Value of the vocation.
2. Obligations of the sales girl.
 - (a) Toward herself: Physical and intellectual development; educational opportunities; ethical development.
 - (b) Toward the community.
 - (c) Toward the employer.
3. Care on the part of the community and State for the working girl.
 - (a) In sickness: Municipal provisions; hospitals; sanitaria; sickness insurance.
 - (b) In case of accident: Regulations for accident prevention; accident insurance, etc.
 - (c) In old age and invalidism: Institutions for the aged; life insurance, etc.

II. The sales girl in home and family. (17 weeks.)

The family as the basis for morals and community welfare.

1. Duties of the daughter; duties of children and rights of parents.
2. Duties of the housewife: The wife as companion of the husband; as guardian of the family purse; her care (a) for the dwelling—Cleaning, ventilation, heating, illumination, providing a comfortable home: (b) for clothing—Adequate and hygienic clothing. Dress.
3. Duties of the mother.
 - (a) The mother and her care of the infant.
 - (b) In bringing up the child.
 - (c) In sickness.
 - (d) Work of the mother in early childhood; in seeing to the child's attendance at school, etc.

Composition.

Written reports on show-window decoration and advertising. Drawing up apprenticeship and employment contracts, etc. General reports on the impor-

tance of retail trade. Themes on children's duties and parents' rights. Descriptions of fire and burglary insurance, etc. Discussions of home and housekeeping problems (leasing, ordering, etc.).

Bookkeeping.

Introduction to double bookkeeping by American methods. Keeping books for a retail business. Household bookkeeping.

Commercial science and economic geography.

I.

1. Commercial science.

- (a) Quality. Marks of difference. Errors and falsifications in articles of the trade.
- (b) Raw material.
- (c) Production.
- (d) Utilization of the goods.

2. Materials.

- (a) Textiles.
- (b) Commercial art products.
- (c) Food products.

In each class the products of these three main groups are to be discussed with special emphasis on the products of the particular trade to which the class belongs.

II.

ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY.

The last five weeks of every half year are devoted to economic geography:

- (a) Sources and markets of the products and their highways of trade.
- (b) Berlin as the field of production and distribution of the goods.
- (c) The economic conditions of Germany and of its most important trade connections. Germany's colonies (to be treated at the close of the discussion on textiles).

NOTE.—Geographic conditions will enter into the discussion only so far as they are necessary for an understanding of the economic conditions.

Household arts instruction.

FIRST YEAR—SEWING AND MENDING.

One-fourth year: Machine stitching and other machine work; making a simple apron.

Three-fourths year: Work on linen goods; mending by hand and by machine alternately; making shirt, etc., from a given pattern; mending underwear and outer clothing by hand and with the machine.

SECOND YEAR—CUTTING AND IRONING.

Three-fourths year: Exercises in copying and altering given patterns in connection with practical work (blouse, coat, etc.), and making over of old clothing (for example, making a child's jacket out of a man's coat).

One-fourth year: Ironing (simple and fine linen).

THIRD YEAR—COOKING AND FEEDING.

Discussion of the most important foods, in respect to kind, origin, food value, taste, price, use, and preservation. Practical exercises in the preparation of simple meals, with special regard to utilizing left-over material. The dishes will be adapted to the different seasons of the year.

1. Introduction: Producing nutritious, cheap, and simple meals. 2. Methods of cooking. Fuel: Electricity, etc. 3. Water and washing. 4. Milk and milk products. 5. Eggs. 6. Potatoes. 7 and 8. Vegetables. 9. Meat: Slaughtered meat, game, and poultry. 10. Methods of cooking meat: Boiling, stewing, roasting. 11. Fats. 12. Fish. 13. Grains: Products, baking. 14. Spices, etc. 15. Fruit. 16. Drinks: Warning against misuse. 17. Food for the sick. 18. Food for children.

From many other parts of Germany come indications of further extension of the girls' continuation-school idea. In Hamburg the authorities have decided to impose compulsory continuation-school attendance on all girls under 18 years of age employed as clerks, sales-women, or apprentices. The regulation is to apply at first to those employed in purely commercial pursuits, but it is indicated that as early as possible the regulations will be extended to all branches of trade and industry. About 2,000 girls are immediately affected, and it is estimated that the cost will be 110,000 marks a year. Saar-brucken has extended the curriculum of the continuation school to include women clerks and salesgirls. In Insterburg the mayor and city council have inaugurated compulsory training for girls, with a one-year course that is to become a three years' course as soon as financial conditions will allow. Trade schools for girls are demanded by merchants' organizations of Mannheim and Heidelberg. The city of Ulm will have the first trade school for girls in Wurttemberg. Thuringen is giving special attention to household-arts education for girls. Jena plans a special building that shall not be merely a continuation school for girls, but a general-welfare institution. A foster home, peoples' kitchen, and other features will be connected with the school, including an evening recreation center for girls, where they may rest, read, and study, or hear lectures.

The training of teachers for continuation schools has been treated in detail in previous reports of the Commissioner of Education,¹ and it is not necessary to add anything to the general discussion here. Prussia has, however, during the past year, worked out a new plan that should be noted: A seminary for trade continuation-school teachers will be established with a one-year course. To this will be admitted those who have passed the second examination (i. e., are regularly qualified teachers) and have been engaged in the continuation school in a subordinate capacity, and workmen and technical men who have had at least three years of actual work and can show an adequate general education. The entrance examination will include both a special and a general test. The general examination may be dispensed with if the applicant's education is readily verified by academic records, and anyone who has pursued successfully a four-semester course at a satisfactory technical school is absolved from the

¹ See Educ. Rept., 1911, Vol. I, pp. 389-417.

special examination. In accordance with the preliminary training, the teachers will devote more time to drawing, while the practical men will give more time to practice in teaching. Instruction will be given in vocational science, citizenship, treatment of the drawing courses for the main vocations, with technological explanations, hygiene, and pedagogy.

V. EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP.

The demand for thorough "training in citizenship" fills the air in Germany to-day. The term is used in a much larger sense than "civics" or almost any corresponding term in English. It means the systematic instruction of the pupil in every conceivable subject that will prepare directly for the exercise of the duties of citizenship.

For some years educators, statesmen, jurists, and others (including the Emperor himself) have advocated direct citizenship training by the schools, but their agitation appears to have borne little fruit until 1908, when two books, Karl Negenborn's "The German as citizen," and Paul Rühlmann's "Political education: What it is and what it signifies," stirred the widest circles of educated men to a "crusade for national education." In September, 1908, the "Association for Citizenship Education of the German People" was founded. The movement did not immediately derive support from public-school teachers—only 3 of the 67 men who signed the first call were teachers, 24 were university professors, 7 were literary men, 5 were mayors, etc., but during the past three or four years the teachers have assumed a leading part, and Director Georg Kerschensteiner, of Munich, is the vice president of the organization and its actual head. The society has published 10 bulletins, 4 of them dealing with education for citizenship in Switzerland, the Netherlands, Denmark, and France, 5 with questions of method, and 1 a study of Alsace-Lorraine. Lectures were held in Berlin in the winter of 1910-11, and to a still larger extent in the winter of 1911-12. Some of the subjects of discussion at these lectures were: Constitution of the Empire; parliamentary procedure; public meetings; technique of journalism; systems of election; imperial finance reform; insurance; the programs of the political parties.

During the year just passed Germany has been flooded with literature on the subject of "education for citizenship," but "no new thoughts have been offered," to quote the opinion of a writer who has recently examined the output of the year. The movement has, however, received university sanction in a very direct way. In connection with the vacation school conducted by Prof. Rein at Jena, the association gave special courses in citizenship lasting from August 12 to 17, 1912. Of the 748 students present at the summer session, 150 took part in the citizenship lectures.

Part of the time was devoted to general lectures on the main problems of economics and government from an international point of view; this work was in charge of Prof. Brandenburg, of Leipzig. Dr. Geffchen, of the Cologne Technical School, treated of the composition of the German Empire and its significance for the citizen of the individual German State. Dr. Rühlmann's course on fundamental questions of citizenship training is worthy of particular notice in this connection, because it really amounted to a course in methods for teachers desirous of introducing the new work into their schools. The following were among the subjects which he discussed: The idea of the modern state; self-government; suffrage; economic competition under imperial conditions; the educational system in a modern state; its significance for the process of democratization; agencies of education; the press, organizations, etc.; the school and the modern state; state or community school; the army and the school; child welfare; the school programs of the political parties; education for citizenship: its dangers; defense of citizenship training; age of maturity for citizenship training; self-government of the pupils; results of citizenship training in Switzerland, France, Denmark, and Holland. In connection with the course in methods, Dr. Stutzer, director of the Gymnasium at Gorlitz, lectured on citizenship training in the secondary schools, giving particular attention to the time and manner of presentation of the subject in secondary education.

The association also maintains a general lecture bureau. Those who join in its work agree beforehand to observe "a scientific objectivity" and to forego all political partisanship.

The agitation is by no means confined to this one society. There are other organizations in and out of the school that have given assistance. For the past two winters the Citizens' Association of Hamburg has been holding civic lectures, mainly for boy and girls who have left school. The student societies have also been conspicuous in support of the work. The technical school at Charlottenburg last summer held lectures in education for citizenship, in which special municipal subjects were treated. A number of the women's organizations are also aiding in the propaganda.

That Dr. Kerschensteiner and other educators most concerned in the movement for citizenship education have much more in mind than mere instruction in the essentials of government may be seen from the Munich educator's book, *Der Begriff der Staatsbürgerlichen Erziehung*, where the term is practically made synonymous with all education undertaken by the state for the state. According to Dr. Kerschensteiner the "problem of civic education of the people is the most difficult of all educational problems, not in theory, but in practice." He begins by telling what "citizenship education" is not. It is not, he says, mere information about government; it is

not mere technical economic education; it is not identical with political education, nor yet with social education, but makes use of all of these in its larger purpose of equipping for ideal citizenship.

The purpose of education for citizenship is, first of all, to teach the pupils through correct organization of the schools, through student societies and their methods of work how to serve the common good; to accustom them to duty, under voluntary adaptation, submission, and mutual consideration; and, finally, to advance this civilization morally by voluntary personal sacrifice.

It is to awaken, through mutual activity in human tasks, that sense of responsibility for all that is done and left undone which alone gives sound basis for the liberties that we prize so highly in a modern state. And, finally, it seeks to show that the state, with its almost limitless interrelations of life interests, is only a larger form of school organization which has already laid the basis in the students for the social virtues.

In other words, the task of citizenship education is so to educate the citizens that their activity, consciously or unconsciously, directly or indirectly, will serve to bring the concrete state of which they form a part nearer and nearer to the infinitely remote ideal of an ethically perfect commonwealth.

Some attempt has been made to introduce the systematic study of citizenship into the elementary school, but Dr. Kerschensteiner does not recommend it, though admitting that such is the practice in France, Denmark, and Finland, where citizenship is taught in the upper grades of the common schools. There is a real place for it in the secondary schools, he believes, though he says he knows of some history courses in secondary schools that are taught with a breadth of view and a background of good citizenship that render any special course in citizenship unnecessary. The one place where Dr. Kerschensteiner is sure training for citizenship ought to be given is in the vocational schools, where the pupils are mature enough and yet impressionable, so that civic ideals once learned will sink in, and where the element of the population that most needs citizenship training will be reached. While Dr. Kerschensteiner thinks there should be no systematic training for citizenship in the ordinary elementary school, he believes that a great deal of valuable incidental instruction can be given by the teacher in connection with other branches.¹

VI. THE TEACHING PROFESSION.

There seems to be some question whether the appointment of Wilhelm Rein as the first "ordentlicher" professor of pedagogy is to be considered a belated recognition for pedagogy as a science, or

¹ For more detailed information as to Dr. Kerschensteiner's present ideas of this subject, as well as of the "Arbeitschule" principle for which he stands sponsor, the reader is referred to the two recent books, *Der Begriff der staatsbürgerlichen Erziehung* and *Die Arbeitschule*. (B. G. Teubner, Leipzig and Berlin, 1912.)

simply a personal testimony to the work of Prof. Rein himself, who has just rounded out a quarter of a century at Jena as "ausserordentlicher," that is, without the usual rights and privileges of a regular member of the faculty. Whatever the motive for the change, Jena now has the first regular professor of pedagogy in Germany. A certain amount of academic importance attaches to the altered title that may not at first be apparent. Prof. Rein will not only have voting membership in the university senate, which was denied him as docent, but will direct authoritatively the research work that he has for many years directed in all but name.

The German States are bound not to be outdone in teacher training. During the past year Bavaria has raised the period of training from five to six years, to correspond to the usual requirement elsewhere in Germany, and at the same time has broadened the curriculum. For purposes of comparison the new course of study for Bavaria is given below, side by side with that for Prussia. Prussian educators who have examined the Bavarian plan appear rather envious of certain features of it that do not appear in the mere titles of subjects; they note that the content of the different courses seems to have been considerably modernized. Special attention is given in the Bavarian plan to school hygiene: (1) Hygiene of instruction (mental fatigue, etc.); (2) sanitation; (3) hygiene of the teaching profession; (4) school building and equipment.

Course of study for training of teachers in Bavaria and Prussia.

Prescribed subjects.	Hours a week.						Prussia.						
							Subjects.	Hours a week.			Total hours.		
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Fifth year.	Sixth year.		First year.	Second year.	Third year.	First year.		
Religion.....	3	3	3	3	3	3	18	Religion.....	4	4	3	13	21
German.....	6	6	6	4	4	2	28	German.....	5	5	3	13	28
Mathematics.....	4	4	4	4	3	—	19	Mathematics.....	5	5	5	11	26
Geography.....	2	2	2	1	1	—	8	Geography.....	2	2	3	2	12
History.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	History.....	2	2	3	2	13
Nature study.....	2	2	2	—	—	—	6	Nature study.....	2	4	4	11	19
Chemistry.....	—	—	—	2	2	—	4	Pedagogy.....	—	3	3	3	9
Physics.....	—	—	—	3	3	—	6	Teaching:	—	—	—	—	—
Hygiene.....	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	Methods and problems.....	—	4	4	4	8
Pedagogy:								Practice.....	—	—	4	6	10
Theory.....	—	—	—	3	3	5	11	Foreign language.....	3	3	2	2	15
Practice.....	—	—	—	—	1	10	11	Writing.....	2	2	1	—	5
Music.....	5	5	5	4	4	3	26	Drawing.....	2	2	2	2	11
Drawing.....	3	3	3	3	3	1	16	Gymnastics.....	3	3	3	3	18
Gymnastics.....	3	3	3	3	3	3	18	Music.....	3	4	5	4	24
Electives:													
French.....	3	3	3	2	2	2	15						
Stenography.....	1	1	1	—	—	—	3						

¹ Methods.

Little in the way of improvement in the economic status of the teachers can be reported. From various localities come notices of campaigns for higher salaries, frequently with favorable results, but the increasing cost of living seems to eat up the advance almost before it is conceded. The teachers' demands for an adequate economic return are well summed up in resolutions adopted at a recent meeting of the German teachers' associations, when representatives were present from all parts of the Empire. The resolutions were:

1. If the German public school is to fulfill its duties in the service of popular education as well as in economic development, it is the duty of the German people to give their teachers an economic status corresponding to the importance and difficulty of the task intrusted to them.

2. With all due acknowledgment of the progress which has taken place through legislation in most of the German States during the last few years in teachers' salaries, it must be said that no salary law thus far passed fully complies with this fundamental demand.

3. The work of the common-school teachers does not differ in character as mental activity from that of the "academically trained" teachers. Salary regulations that measure the pay of common-school teachers by half of the pay of academically trained teachers are therefore not justified. On the contrary, the salaries of the common-school teachers, which, aside from rent money, must be equally high in city and country, should be made much nearer those of the academically trained teachers than is at present the case.

The German plan of payment for teachers, as is well known, includes "house money"; that is, a certain amount in lieu of residence. An important phase of the cost-of-living problem in Germany has been to make this house allowance adequate for the rapidly rising rents. The cities of Ulm and Frankfort have recently attacked this problem in an interesting way. They have tried the plan of selling to their teachers good municipal land at a low price and accepting a mortgage on it at low interest. In Frankfort this mortgage may amount to 90 per cent of the value, so that the applicant has to provide but 10 per cent from his own funds. The tax and mortgage payments together, it is said, do not amount to as much as apartment rents in less desirable neighborhoods, and with his regular "Wohnungsgeld" the teacher is soon the owner of his own home. This seems to be a novel application of a valuable principle, and the results will be watched with interest.

CHAPTER XXII.

EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN EUROPE.

CONTENTS.

Disturbed conditions.

Italy: Scope of the educational system; measures for extending primary instruction; education of emigrants; instruction in Arabic; current legislation.

Educational activities in Spain.—Portugal.

Greece: Regard for education; statistics; chief current interests; child-labor law.

Turkey: System of public instruction; schools and colleges in Constantinople; Smyrna; Mamouret-el-Aziz; missionary agencies.

Educational status of the Balkan nations: Bulgaria; Servia; Montenegro.

The upheavals and wars which have disturbed all the nations of Southern Europe during the year have seriously interfered with their educational progress. At the same time, these events have raised new demands for the agencies by which intelligence and industrial efficiency are developed.

ITALY.

Italy, the leading nation of the Mediterranean group, is seriously hampered by the unequal distribution of schools and higher institutions; and this inequality is reflected in the extremes of culture and ignorance which characterize the people.

The general control of education is exercised by the minister of public instruction, but his authority is less than that of the minister in the highly centralized French system. Public schools are classified according to their scope as elementary and secondary, the latter subdivided into classical and technical. Above these are the State universities and higher technical institutions.

Official reports pertaining to the entire system of general education are issued for five-year periods, the latest of which covers the year 1907-8. From this source, supplemented by later reports of special classes of schools, the following statistics are derived.

Schools, teachers, and pupils.

Classes of schools.	Number of schools.	Number of teachers.	Number of pupils.		
			Male.	Female.	Total.
Infant (asili).....	3,576	7,392	378,563
Elementary:					
Public.....	63,618	61,944	3,002,168
Private.....	3,504	6,067	148,081
Schools for adults.....	4,783	148,233	34,140	182,373
Higher schools for girls (1901-2).....	233	1,906	9,347	9,347
Normal schools (1909-10).....	134	2,661	29,792	32,453
Secondary (1909-10):					
Classical—					
Ginnasi.....	292	34,141	3,919	38,060
Lycei.....	159	13,050	690	13,740
Technical (1909-10)—					
Schools.....	325	59,685	17,046	76,731
Institutes.....	77	17,813	1,586	19,399
Marine institutes.....	20	1,353	1,353

¹ Also 3,332 evening students.

MEASURES FOR EXTENDING PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

Measures for extending and improving the means of popular education have engaged the earnest efforts of the Government during the past decade, in view especially of the revelations of the census of 1901, which showed that 42.5 per cent of the males above 6 years of age and 54.4 per cent of the females were illiterate; the lowest ratio being in Piedmont, 17.7 per cent, and the highest in Calabria, 78.7 per cent. This disclosure led to strenuous efforts for the increase of school provision, and at present there are circondari (provincial subdivisions) in which no illiterates are found among the young people 20 years of age.

As regards elementary education, the provision of schoolhouses was necessary in many districts before the compulsory school attendance law could be enforced; in 1906 an act was passed providing for above 18,000 new schoolhouses, to be used particularly in southern and central Italy, and in the islands of Sicily and Sardinia.

The 17 State universities had a registration in 1909-10 of 20,652 students; the 4 private universities, of 1,558 students. There are also many institutions of university rank specializing in science, language, etc., which raise the total number of students in higher institutions under the ministry of public instruction to 26,584. To this total the special schools under other ministries, i. e., war, navy, finance, etc., would add about 10,000 students.

Italy is also well supplied with commercial and industrial schools, including schools of design and modeling, which prepare a great company of students (above 40,000 in 1910) for remunerative careers. Thus, the organized system of public instruction is supplemented by important agencies for vocational, scientific, and technical training.

Under the education law of June 4, 1911, the State assumed a large part of the expenses for primary schools in the different Provinces, and special committees were formed for promoting school attendance, for the distribution of free meals and clothes, for the establishment of libraries, etc. The salaries of teachers were increased, and inducements were given for grading the schools in small villages and when possible even in rural districts by a small advance in the salaries of teachers in charge of two classes. A fund was also provided to be loaned to communes on long terms for the purpose of aiding them in building schoolhouses. As a result of these measures it is estimated that the appropriation for education from the public treasury, which in 1911 amounted to 34,000,000 lire (\$6,562,000), will reach 74,000,000 lire (\$14,282,000) within a decade.

The plans of the Government for extending the school provision are seconded by the practical efforts of leading men and women who manifest the liveliest interest in the welfare of the young. This is shown in the provision of open-air schools which originated from the campaign against tuberculosis, conducted by an Italian committee composed of physicians, scientists, and philanthropists, women being specially active in the cause.

In 1902 a school colony for consumptive children was established at Barbarano in the Province of Vicenza by Prof. A. de Giovanni, of the University of Padua. In 1905 Alessandro Randi, a prominent physician of Padua, assisted by a committee of the Red Cross, opened an autumnal school colony on the ramparts around that city. During the present year open-air schools have been maintained by private efforts in the vicinity of Milan, at Rome (on the Janiculum), at Varazze, a seaport town near Genoa, and in several other places. The sites for these schools are chosen with great care, and they are conducted in a truly scientific manner.

The system of child training developed by Dr. Maria Montessori in her work, "Il Metodo della Pedagogia Scientifica," has drawn universal attention to Rome as a center of scientific research into the laws and conditions of education considered as a process of development.

EDUCATION OF EMIGRANTS.

Among the important activities growing out of the revived interest in education are the measures taken to instruct emigrants on the eve of their departure for foreign lands. The annual exodus of Italians from their native land is enormous; in 1909 more than 600,000 departed to become laborers in other countries of Europe

and the New World. With respect to their condition one of their own countrymen, in an official report on the subject, says:

From want of instruction these emigrants occupy the lowest place in the scale of emigration to the other side of the ocean, * * * entirely ignorant not alone of the country to which they are going, but of life outside of some miserable town of the Basilicate or of Sicily, unable to understand any language excepting the patois of their village, as ready to trust any knave who would take advantage of their misery as to suspect the man who seeks to aid and guide them, they fall an easy prey to those who would rob them of their small savings. They need protection before they depart.¹

In view of these conditions an emigration commission was created at Rome some years ago with local committees throughout the country whose business it is to look after the intending emigrants, to direct and protect them. This agency has been supplemented by numerous private societies, such as L'Umanitaria at Milan. The experience thus obtained indicates plainly that "the problem of the protection of the emigrant is, in great part, the problem of his instruction," a conviction which has been deepened by the increasing stringency of the immigration laws of the United States, for it is to this country that the great body of Italian emigrants direct their course.

The problem thus presented was the subject of earnest discussion in a congress held in 1911 to consider the condition of Italians in foreign countries, and on that occasion, upon the motion of Signor Cabrini, commissioner of emigration, it was resolved that "the congress and its individual members should promote all efforts which are intended to elevate the intellectual and moral level of emigrants." Already classes had been formed for this purpose at various points by private enterprise; the minister of public instruction, Signor Credaro, had given full support to these efforts, while at the same time he insisted that the rural schools should make this work one of their main purposes. "An Italian teacher in a rural school," he said, "who does not instruct his pupils in the mysteries of emigration steals his salary and betrays his pupils."² It is evident, however, that under present circumstances the elementary schools can not meet this need very fully, and hence the special classes must be sustained.

As explained by Signor Corradini, the director general of primary education, these classes are intended to give the emigrants in a form, brief but exact and effective, information as to their rights in the countries beyond the ocean, of the opportunities they offer, of their geographic and economic features, of the perils and dangers which, as emigrants, they must encounter, etc., and they should also famil-

¹ See *L'instruction des émigrants en Italie*, by Maurice Roger, in *Revue Pédagogique*, October, 1912, p. 368.

² Cited from Roger, p. 377.

iarize the emigrants with two or three hundred words of the foreign language of most immediate use to them in the country to which they may be going. He adds:

But the first endeavor of the teachers should be to rouse the sentiment of human dignity and of the importance of the Italian nation, in order that the emigrant may preserve in his heart the sense of his own worth and that of his native land in the countries in which inexorable necessity forces him to seek the means of existence.¹

The Government has taken up this work, not in the interests of the emigrants alone, but from national pride as well. In July, 1911, a circular was issued by the minister of public instruction comprising courses of instruction to serve for the guidance of teachers engaging in this work. These model courses carry out in detail the subjects briefly outlined by Signor Corradini. They include matters of common interest to all emigrants, such as the organization of the emigrant service in Italy, railroad services, sanitary inspection, conditions of ocean travel, exchange of currency, emigrant aid societies, etc. There are also special courses treating of the individual countries; for example, the United States, its political divisions, administrative and monetary systems, etc.²

Early in 1912 the minister of public instruction arranged for the opening of 100 schools for emigrants, distributed among the different Provinces according to their needs, and in charge of teachers who had been trained for this service. The formal instruction is supplemented by the circulating libraries which maintain special sections for the literature of emigration.

The entire work is animated by philanthropy and patriotism. It aims not only to safeguard the emigrant, but to promote a community of interests among Italian colonists which will strengthen their home ties and preserve in their hearts the sentiment of devotion to their motherland.

INSTRUCTION IN ARABIC.

On account of the relations resulting from the war with Tripoli the minister of public instruction presented a bill to the Senate authorizing the introduction of courses in the Arabic language in selected schools. The action is urged as a means of promoting friendly relations with the new possessions through the services of men familiar with the language of the people and able to understand their intellectual processes. The bill calls for a provisional sum, 30,000 lire (\$5,000), to meet the original expenses of the experiment. Gratuitous instruction is also offered in several Italian colleges for young men from Tripoli and other parts of Libya.

¹ Roger, p. 378.

² See *L'Educazione dei Bambini*, No. 7, 1912 (Jan. 1), pp. 108-111.

Arabic is already included in the courses of several Italian universities, but the subject is treated from the philological standpoint. The minister of public instruction has ordered that the language shall be at once included in the technical colleges of Genoa, Naples, Leghorn, and Caltanissetta, following the practical method of instruction used in the principal commercial colleges. Official regulations have been issued determining the scope and details of the examinations which will entitle candidates to the diploma for teachers of Arabic.

The examinations include written and oral tests, special stress being placed in the latter upon the correct pronunciation of Arabic words. The candidates are expected to show familiarity with the dictionaries and grammars of the language published in Europe and with the principal periods of Arabic literature.

While measures are thus taken by the Government to prepare teachers for the new courses of study, immediate use will be made, so far as possible, of the services of missionaries who have been stationed in Tripoli and are not only familiar with the language but also understand the habits and temperament of the people.

Thus Italy is following the precedent set by France in its relations with Algeria by carefully devised plans for assimilating to itself through educational processes a people ethnically and socially dissimilar.

CURRENT LEGISLATION.

The record of current legislation shows the purpose of the Government to improve the entire system of education without any radical change in the existing organization.

A law of June 27, 1912, provides for permanent inspectors of secondary schools, to be chosen among teachers of the same, who had taught for at least 12 years in schools of that order.

A second law of June 27, 1912, substitutes in primary and secondary schools the plan of promoting from one class to another upon the basis of the work accomplished by the pupils, instead of by examination; pupils who fall below the standard fixed must, however, pass examination.

A law of July 14 provides for the reorganization of industrial and commercial schools under the charge of the minister of agriculture, commerce, and industry, and for a State subsidy for private schools of this character.

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN SPAIN.

Spain has theoretically a very complete system of education, based upon the law of 1857, which was enacted in a period of great activity on the part of leading men in the cause of popular enlightenment. The reactionary influences and the decline that ensued are

matters of history. The present time is characterized by a revival of interest in the cause which is due not alone to the efforts of advanced thinkers, but even more to the sense of national danger from the backward condition of the masses of the people. The census of 1900 showed that 63 per cent of the population were illiterate. Even in the cities the proportion was high: In Madrid, 30 per cent; in Barcelona, 48 per cent.

As a consequence of this disclosure, a new office, that of minister of public instruction, was created, and the administration of public schools and higher teaching institutions was separated from other Government functions. The minister immediately ordered an investigation into the state of primary education, which revealed conditions alarming to all thoughtful minds. Testimony from every part of the country showed that school provision was inadequate, school buildings too often unfit for the purpose, many intolerable in fact, teachers without preparation and poorly paid, and the inspectors inefficient and indifferent. The report of the investigation was issued just upon the eve of the revolution which brought the Liberal party into power, and the new minister, Count de Romanes, followed this preliminary action with measures of reform which were in part approved by the Cortes.

In January, 1911, the administration of primary education was organized as a separate division of the ministry under its own director, and during the year the amount voted for the expenses of the department was increased from 27,000,000 pesetas (\$5,400,000) to 32,000,000 pesetas (\$6,400,000), available for 1912.

The preparation of teachers was early recognized in Spain as essential to the development of an efficient system of primary education, and the teachings of Pestalozzi and Froebel were adopted as the basis of professional training. The two normal schools at Madrid, one for men and the other for women, still retain the spirit of the great reformers. In addition to the two schools at the capital, the State maintains normal schools in different parts of the Kingdom, but these provincial institutions had fallen into a low state. Among measures for raising their standards and imparting to them a new spirit was the establishment at Madrid of a superior institution for the purpose of training professors for the service of the primary normals. This institution was created by decree of June, 1909, and opened the following year.

The National Government has also assumed the salaries for teachers, which saves them from the uncertain action of local authorities. The salaries are graded in eight classes, the annual minimum ranging from 500 pesetas (\$100) in places having less than 500 inhabitants to 2,000 pesetas (\$400). A further advance carrying the maximum up to 3,000 pesetas (\$600) has been authorized, but the state of the

treasury has thus far precluded the payment of the higher rates. The local authorities may increase the salaries, and this is done in Madrid and Barcelona.

On account of continued disturbances in the country and the apathy of many local authorities, it is difficult to obtain complete statistics of primary education. The latest official report, published in 1910, shows a total of 34,954 public primary schools, including subsidized parochial schools and 8,100 private primaries. The total enrollment was 2,052,000, which was 10 per cent of the population.

The reform of secondary education advocated for more than half a century is becoming every day more and more imperative by reason of the growing commercial and agricultural interests of the nation. In southwestern Spain especially there is a strong movement supported by the agricultural society of Seville for instruction in the sciences bearing upon agriculture. The university extension movement promotes the same purpose by popularizing scientific knowledge. This movement is due to the efforts of the distinguished historian, Don Rafael Altamira, and his colleagues of the University of Oviedo. Among topics recently selected for the public lectures by workmen themselves are X rays, combustion, the flora of the Tropics, etc. The lectures not only give the working classes some idea of the practical applications of science, but excite their interest in the affairs of life by the discussion of historic and literary subjects.

Through the efforts of the leaders in the extension movement, a board for the promotion of studies and scientific research was organized at Madrid during the present year, and received a Government appropriation of \$140,000 in aid of its work. The board maintains courses of instruction and scientific laboratories, and is the Government agent for selecting students to be sent abroad for the pursuit of special studies. The Institucion Libre de Enseñanza, which was founded in 1876, has maintained for over a quarter of a century an active propaganda in the cause of modern education and maintains schools and classes in which its principles are practically illustrated.

In this connection, also, reference should be made to the work of the International Institute for Girls in Spain, founded by an American woman, Mrs. Alice Gordon Gulick, liberally supported by friends in America. Under the able management of the present director, Miss Susan D. Huntington, the institute is exercising a profound influence over social and domestic life. A normal course has recently been organized to train teachers for the elementary schools of Madrid.

These movements for the intellectual and scientific advancement of the nation had the full sympathy of Premier Canalejas, whose untimely death has deprived the country of invaluable services in the interests both of harmony and of progress.

PORtUGAL.

Prior to the revolution of 1908 active measures had been taken in Portugal looking to the increased supply of primary schools and the introduction of practical courses of instruction in the secondary schools. Among these measures was the provision of an annual appropriation, equivalent to \$100,000, for scholarships available for professors and students selected for special studies and research in the chief centers in technical education in Europe (financial law of 1907). By this means the Government sought to correct the excessive regard for literary and speculative studies on the part of educated classes in the Kingdom. The unsettled condition of the country since the Republic was declared has interfered seriously with educational progress, but the subject continues to be one of earnest discussion, as well as of active efforts on the part of private associations. The impetus given to technical education by the reforms inaugurated by the Marquis of Pombal in 1772 has, indeed, never entirely declined: Lisbon and Oporto are well provided with industrial and technical schools. The former city, which has a population of less than 400,000, has 27 industrial schools with about 5,000 students, 3 technical schools with nearly 500 students, and an important school for training officials for the colonial service. The University of Coimbra, founded in 1290, reported in 1911 a total of 1,352 students.

The expenditure by the Government for public education in 1910 was 3,742,569 milreis (\$4,041,974), not including 476,896 milreis granted to the ministries of war and marine for the technical schools pertaining to their services.

GREECE.

Education is prized by the people of Greece, and the present Government has recognized its importance by legislation and by appropriations, but outside of the chief cities primary schools are few and school attendance is extremely irregular. The total enrollment in the schools in 1908, as shown in the table, was less than 9 per cent of the population; in part, this low ratio is explained by the prevailing indifference to the education of girls, but the enrollment of boys was only 12 per cent of the total male population.

In respect to the desire for education, the alert people of the villages and cities offer a marked contrast with the peasantry, and it is the latter who, by reason of indifference and natural obstacles, keep down the general average of school attendance. Aspiring youth of the peasant class desert the country for the cities.

Notwithstanding the unsatisfactory provision for elementary education, the traditions of culture are very strong in the nation, and the secondary schools are well attended. Under this head are classed the Hellenic schools and the gymnasia. The former are in scope similar to the higher grade primary schools, which are authorized by law, and are maintained in a few places. The Hellenic schools, however, pay special attention to the Greek language and literature, which occupy fully one-third the time in the three years' course. The proposition has been made to provide for the special study of Greek by adding one year to the higher primary course and a preparatory year to the gymnasia or secondary school proper. The latter follow German models in their organization and courses of instruction.

Statistics of the school system of Greece for 1907-8.

	Elementary (deme.).	Hellenic.	Gymnasia.	
			Public.	Private.
Schools.....	3,418	314	26	11
Teachers.....	4,336	940	209	103
Students:				
Boys.....	170,374	20,517	3,941	1,352
Girls.....	71,059			
Total expense:				
Drachmas.....	6,690,098	2,477,022	767,376	259,900
Dollars.....	\$1,291,575	\$478,065	\$148,110	\$50,161
Expense per pupil.....	\$5.35	\$23.30	\$37.58	\$37.92

CHIEF CURRENT INTERESTS.

The chief current activities in regard to education pertain to the interests of the rural population and to the advancement of women. Efforts have been made to introduce modern agricultural implements and methods, and for the success of these endeavors better roads and better primary schools are recognized as essential.

The foremost women of Greece have been very active in the "woman movement," and have enlisted the cooperation of eminent men in their cause. The results are seen in the greater interests in the education of girls, and more particularly in the preparation of women for teaching and for other professional services.

The most important school for girls above the primary grade is a private institution, named from its founder and benefactor, the Arsakion. It is situated at Athens, but has branches in other cities and has about 1,800 students on its register. The program includes a three years' special course for intending teachers, and the certificate is accepted for admission to the position of teacher in an elementary school.

The opening of the University of Athens to women is an important outcome of the general movement. Already one woman has graduated from the medical faculty and entered upon professional duties, in which the services of women are particularly desirable. This expansion of facilities was particularly noticed in the ceremonies attending the seventy-fifth anniversary of the foundation of the university, which occurred April 6, 1912.

CHILD LABOR LAW.

The awakening sense of public responsibility with reference to children is largely due to the influence of progressive women. They were active in securing the passage at the legislative session of 1911-12, of a child labor law which forbids the employment of children under 12 years of age in mills, factories, mines, on buildings or other outdoor work, in messenger or transportation service, in shops, restaurants, coffeehouses, wine shops, bakeries, or hotels. After five years these occupational restrictions will be applied also to children between 12 and 14 years and to those who have not completed their attendance at the primary schools. For such children the day's work will be limited to 6 hours, with 10 hours for children above school age but under 18 years, who will not be permitted, however, to work more than 8 hours on Saturdays or legal holidays. The law also places restrictions upon the employment of women and of children between 12 and 16 years of age. Although the provisions are very moderate, the law brings Greece into accord with the social development of the principal nations.

TURKEY.

SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The revolutionary government established in 1909 included education in its proposed reforms, but effected no change in the education law of 1869. This law therefore was in force when the Balkan War broke out, and is the basis on which the existing schools are operating in the Turkish Empire, as the expression may still be understood. The law of 1869 required that a primary school be established in every commune, and wherever possible a separate school for girls, and made the instruction of boys compulsory from ages 6 to 17 years and of girls from the ages of 6 to 10. Both public and private schools were recognized, the former being Mohammedan. In addition to the Koran and the elements of ciphering, the programs were extended to include the outlines of Ottoman history, notions of geography, and object lessons.

Higher primary schools and secondary schools of two orders to be maintained by the State were also provided for by the law of 1869; the higher secondary leading to the university and special schools. For instruction in modern branches the French language was prescribed.

In addition to the public, or Government, system, the law sanctioned the schools maintained by the various religious denominations, which followed pretty closely the program of corresponding schools in other European countries.

In 1910 it was estimated that there were in all the Empire 36,230 schools, with 1,331,200 pupils, equivalent to 5.3 per cent of the population. The number of schools given is three times as great as the number reported in 1908, and may be an exaggeration, although it is known that schools have multiplied during the past few years, especially in cities and towns.

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES IN CONSTANTINOPLE.

The deposed Sultan, Abdul Hamid, was eager to make his capital a model city, and, among other enterprises, he ordered the establishment of military and medical schools patterned after those of Paris. At the time the Revolution broke out (1909) there were in Constantinople, according to official reports, 561 primary schools of the lower grade, 65 higher primary (34 public, 31 private), and of secondary institutions 11 preparatory and 1 college.

The plans of the former Sultan for a university at Constantinople for instruction in Moslem theology, supplemented by modern subjects, have never been realized, although the university has official recognition; the Imperial School of Medicine, already in existence, forms one of its departments; the Imperial Art School, the "Great Greek National School," and the Greek Theological Seminary, are also at Constantinople. To these must be added two American institutions of high repute and remarkable history: Robert College and the American College for Girls.

Robert College, founded in 1859 by a merchant of New York, whose name it bears, and maintained half a century by donations from friends in America, has been placed upon a solid basis by a legacy of \$2,500,000 from the estate of Mr. John S. Kennedy, of New York. The announcement of this bequest was made at the commencement exercises of 1910 by the president of the college, Caleb F. Gates, L.L. D., who at the same time outlined plans for enlarging the scope of the institution, as follows:

A portion of this sum will be used for extending the campus and increasing the buildings, and the remainder will constitute a permanent endowment, which will yield a sufficient income to enable us to take care of nearly three times as many students as at present.

We have had only 23 acres of land, but have already purchased 50 additional acres for a campus at the top of the bluff, and are negotiating for the purchase of 50 acres more, which will give us the entire slope to the shores of the Bosphorus.

It is proposed to erect a number of new buildings of stone, to be quarried on the campus, at a cost of nearly half a million dollars, which, in addition to the present buildings, will provide accommodations for more than a thousand students. The present limit is 450.

Prof. A. D. F. Hamlin, of the chair of architecture of Columbia University, New York City, who is a son of Dr. Cyrus Hamlin, the first president of Robert College, has made the designs for the new buildings, has laid out the campus on the American plan, and will superintend the improvements, in association with Prof. John R. Allen, the dean of our new engineering department.

Prof. Hamlin has laid out playgrounds, golf links, tennis courts, football and baseball fields, dormitories, lecture halls, gymnasium, laboratories, a new administration buiding, residences for the president and professors, in a most ingenious and artistic manner, with terraces, gardens, and groves.

FACILITIES FOR ATHLETICS.

The extension of our facilities for athletics is recognized as of great importance, and special attention is given to reservations for those purposes. Both the playgrounds and the football fields will have stands that will accommodate large numbers of spectators, and we propose to educate public sentiment on the subject of outdoor sports, which have never been encouraged among the orientals. Physical culture is another important feature—one of the most important in our curriculum.

Our original gymnasium was built and equipped by the late William E. Dodge, of New York. His son, Cleveland H. Dodge, brought out a full equipment in 1904, and it is now as good as any college gymnasium in the United States, and much better than many.

It is the only gymnasium of the kind in the East. We consider it of the greatest importance, not only for the physical development of the students to counteract the natural and traditional habits of the orientals, but of even greater importance as a leveler in bringing together students of different nationalities and rank.

The football field and the gymnasium are the most complete demonstrations of social democracy that can be furnished. There all of our students meet on a common level, regardless of their birth and rank and titles.

The most important addition to the institution, however, will be a school of engineering. It will occupy two large buildings, with workshops, an electric-light and power plant, and a model mechanical laboratory, located in a conspicuous position overlooking the Bosphorus, upon a terrace south of the present buildings.

An engineering school has been needed for a long time, and is necessary to meet the demand for trained engineers for the development of the material resources of the Empire. There is no school of engineering in this part of the world—none south of the Danube.

The engineering school will be under the direction of Prof. John R. Allen, recently in charge of the department of mechanical engineering in the University of Michigan. He will have charge of the organization of the school and the erection of the plant, and will be dean of the department as soon as the facilities are provided. * * *

There never was such a pressure for educational privileges as is found in Turkey to-day.

The people of this Empire are fully awake to the advantages of education. They realize the backward condition of their country and the opportunities that exist for educated men and the value of the material resources that are lying idle around them. They realize the disadvantages under which they are laboring and their need of trained men.

Hitherto no Turk has ever had an opportunity of advancement except in the military service or in official position. The new régime offers fields of profit and honor for thousands of young men. There is great rivalry among the sons of the intelligent families of Turkey to enter it.

The American College for Girls, at Constantinople, has developed from a high school established by the woman's board of missions in Boston, Mass., and opened for its first session in October, 1871. In 1890 the standard of scholarship in this school was approved by the Legislature of Massachusetts as sufficiently high to justify the granting of a college charter, and consequently the institution was incorporated as a college by "act of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts." The work of this college for the education of women is quite as remarkable as that of Robert College for men. Its students are drawn from all nationalities comprised in the Turkish Empire, and under the direction of its president, Mary Mills Patrick, Ph. D., and a strong faculty comprising graduates from the principal universities of the United States, it is imparting to its students ideals of home life and social relations, while maintaining at the same time high scholastic standards.

The status of education in Asiatic Turkey is best indicated by reference to particular communities.

Smyrna.—According to a consular report, at the time of the breaking out of the revolution of 1909, the situation in Smyrna, the chief city of Asia Minor, was as follows:

The chief dependence of the city for modern education was the Jewish schools, of which there were 14 public and 3 private, with a total attendance of 1,810 pupils. In the environs there were 9 schools under the same auspices, with 968 pupils, or altogether 3,098 pupils. Of these schools, 4 in the city proper and 6 in the suburbs were maintained by the "Alliance Israelite." The two chief schools of the class were a school for boys (322 pupils) and one for girls (303 pupils), in which French and English were taught, as well as Turkish and Hebrew, the elements of science, geography, general history, Jewish history, bookkeeping, commercial correspondence, drawing, gymnastics, singing, and needlework. The majority of the teachers had French diplomas.

All the schools of the "Alliance Israelite" are subsidized by that society, whose seat is in Paris, and by Jewish communities throughout Europe. Some of them also receive subsidies from the Anglo-Jewish Association in London. In all the schools the majority of the pupils pay a small tuition fee, in accordance with their means. This

varies between 20 cents and \$1 per month. The attendance, however, of a great number of pupils is entirely free.

The following particulars, derived from a recent consular report, pertain to the vilayet (district) of Mamouret-ul-Aziz.

School attendance and illiteracy.

Nationalities.	Population.	School attendance.	Percentage of illiteracy.	Approximate school attendance under 14 years.
Turks.....	218,168	11,750	90	7,750
Greeks.....	1,047	150	50	90
Armenians:				
Gregorians.....	72,700	9,270	35	6,270
Protestants.....	9,373	1,370	30	870
Catholics.....	2,983	750	32	500
Syrians.....	1,508	290	50	210
Kurds.....	188,171	1,000	99	750
Total.....	493,948	24,580	-----	16,440

The population of the vilayet, it will be seen, is about half a million, and, although this is a part of ancient Armenia, the Armenian inhabitants, or the Christians, number hardly one-fourth of the population, yet they furnish nearly one-half of the children in attendance upon school, viz, 11,830 out of a total attendance of 24,580 children.

The Moslem inhabitants, it is stated, do not appreciate the importance of educating their children; the Kurds, who are practically all Moslems, are indifferent in this matter. In the larger towns of the district there are a fair number of schools under Moslem and State control, but in the villages there are none. The Armenian communities, on the contrary, even in isolated villages, are awake to the importance of educating their children of both sexes and tax themselves quite heavily to keep their schools running, while the Moslem communities can and do have schools with Government aid when they show an inclination to send their children. Practically all the Armenian males can speak Turkish, and fully one-third can read and write the language.

In respect to the education of girls, the consul says:

Under the former régime it was seldom that Turkish girls had an opportunity to learn to read and write, but within the past few years there have been several schools for girls opened in the larger towns of the district, but crocheting and embroidery work and the simplest exercises in reading are about all that is taught at present. A Moslem girls' school is such a new feature in this district that it will be some time before they will be extensively patronized.

The Kurds are in a different class from any of the other races of this district; practically all of them are illiterate, only a very few being able to read or write Turkish, although a considerable number of them can speak Turkish.

They have no alphabet in their language. It is simply a spoken language with a small vocabulary, and as no assistance is given them in educational matters their condition is not encouraging at present.¹

An agricultural school, Or Iehouda, is maintained by the Jewish Colonization Association, whose seat is also at Paris. On a model farm, extending some 30,000 donoums, or about 7,500 acres, young men coming out of the primary schools of Turkey, Bulgaria, and Roumania learn agricultural work, both practical and theoretical. The teaching is done by special professors who have first studied at the Practical Agricultural School of Mikveh Israel, near Jaffa, and then in the superior agricultural schools of France. The young men prepared at Or Iehouda establish themselves either as colonists or at the farm itself or in foreign lands, principally in Canada, the United States, Argentina, and in Egypt.

The means by which the mission societies are promoting the industrial interests of the young people of Turkey is illustrated by the work of the Industrial Institute, maintained by the American Mission, at Ourfa, Syria. This institute is an adjunct of the orphanage belonging to the mission, but does not limit its work strictly to the boys of the orphanage.

According to a report covering the year 1912, the industrial equipment of the institute includes carpentry, ironsmith, machine, tailoring, and shoemaking shops. During the year there were 43 boys under training, 20 from the orphanage and the remainder from the city. For the orphanage boys the plan of half-day school alternating with half-day shopwork has been introduced. The boys are distributed among the shops, the larger proportion in the carpentry and cabinet department. With regard to the influence exercised by the industrial training, the report says:

This year both the ironshop and carpentry shops made a small profit. Gradually we are getting the shopwork of the institute on a self-supporting basis. To do this it has been necessary to build up business in the trades represented by these shops. When the institute was started, 10 years ago, the amount of business in these trades was almost negligible. Very few even of the Christian natives wore European styles of clothing or shoes, and practically none of their houses contained such furniture as chairs, tables, stoves, and bedsteads, while the ironwork of the city was limited to that of the rudest kinds and the trade itself regarded with contempt. But gradually a trade in these lines has been built up, and the educational value of the institute is shown in the increased demand for its products and the popularizing of the trades which it teaches. The construction of railroads through the land and the opening up of the country to European trade is bound to result in a great increase in business in all of these lines. But it is the educational value of this institute that is its justification, and this consists not merely in the technical training which the boys receive, but also the new system of business ethics which they learn: That prosperity is the result of increased and improved production rather than shrewd,

¹ From report by William W. Masterson, the American consul at Harput, Turkey, Mar. 8, 1912.

tricky bargaining, which is the oriental idea of successful business. The ethical value of this new business policy is beyond estimation in the training of the native Christians for missionary service to the Moslems.

The mission maintains also a woman's industrial department, which, at the beginning of the year, employed 2,480 women and girls in lace-handkerchief work, but it has been greatly affected by the events of the year, which have forced a great reduction in the number of women employed.¹

MISSIONARY AGENCIES.

Missionary societies and various orders of the Roman Catholic Church carry on an extensive educational work throughout the Turkish Empire, and very particularly in the Asiatic section. Recent summarized statements pertaining to nine American societies which are working in the Empire give the number of schools and higher institutions under their charge as 670, with about 40,000 pupils. The work employs 750 American supervisors and teachers and nearly 2,300 trained native assistants. The medical and hospital service maintained by these societies is extensive, and through this service the attention of the people is directed to the importance of modern medical science. The extensive printing plants maintained by the societies issue, it is estimated, about 75,000,000 pages annually.

EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF THE BALKAN NATIONS.

The devastating war against Turkey, with its far-reaching effects, imparts great interest to the internal affairs of the Balkan nations. Their long preparation for the conflict by effective military training is evident, but undoubtedly general education has played a part in the preparation of the confederates, second only to that of military discipline and native valor. The primary agent in the development of these nations was the Greek Church, which formed the common bond between them while they were yet under Turkish rule; for teaching is a function of the Greek Church, as of the Roman Catholic Church, and in many respects its teachings have been in accord with those which Rome imparted to western Europe. It is noticeable also that the divisions of the Greek Church in the Balkan nations have overcome a tendency to absolutism, which has been fostered by the same church in the Russian Empire. Beginning with Greece, which was the first to be freed from the Turkish yoke, everyone of the allied kingdoms has made education compulsory. Although it has been impossible to enforce these laws, their presence on the

¹ Report forwarded by Mr. Jesse B. Jackson, American consul, Aleppo, Syria.

statute books gives sanction to every effort for their practical realization. While the control of education has not been left to the church, clerical authorities have a place in the central administration and in the local supervision of schools.

Higher education is represented in Bulgaria by the University of Sophia and in Servia by the University of Belgrade. The former had 2,116 students (including 237 not matriculated) in the summer semester of 1912 and the latter 1,025 (14 not matriculated) in the summer semester of 1911. Women are admitted to both universities.

There is a Government military academy at Belgrade, but the military officers of the Balkan armies generally get their training in the military schools of neighboring nations.

BULGARIA.

Bulgaria declared her independence of the Turkish Government October 5, 1908, and the first law relative to public instruction was passed by the National Assembly February 18, 1909, and amended by a law of March 8, 1910, which related especially to the administration and classification of schools and the requirements for teachers and professors. The latter law provided that in case a commune able to bear the expense for the erection of a school building refused to provide one, the Government itself should construct the school building and withhold from that commune an equivalent amount from its share in the public appropriation for elementary education. The census of 1910 showed a population of 4,329,108, of whom 77 per cent belonged to the Greek Church and 14 per cent were Mohammedans. According to the latest report of education in this Kingdom (1909-10), there were 3,786 elementary schools, with 8,697 teachers and an enrollment of 483,011 pupils (262,374 boys and 167,717 girls), 14.8 per cent of the total population, a ratio equal to the average for the States of central and western Europe.

The provision for secondary education included 27 gymnasia, with 10,299 pupils, of whom 3,307 were girls; 292 lower middle schools, with 48,199 pupils, of whom 15,141 were girls. There were also technical and industrial schools, with nearly 9,500 pupils, of whom one-half were girls. The period of obligatory instruction is brief, covering ages 8 to 12 years. Instruction is gratuitous in the elementary schools; the wealthier people are charged a small fee for their children attending the secondary schools.

SERVIA.

The population of Servia in 1910 was 2,911,700, of whom 99 per cent are adherents of the Greek Orthodox Church. The latest statistics of education, which pertain to 1909, give a total of 138,434

pupils (109,433 boys and 29,001 girls) in the elementary schools; the total, it will be seen, is less than 5 per cent of the population. This backward condition is due largely to the fact that 70 per cent of the people live by agriculture, and the lack of roads and means of transportation has made it very difficult to establish rural schools.

MONTENEGRO.

Montenegro, hemmed in by Austrian and Turkish territory, covers an area of 3,630 square miles. Its population is estimated at 250,000, a peasant people, mainly industrial and agricultural. The military discipline is very rigid, every male subject being practically a part of the army from the eighteenth to the sixty-second year of his age, or for a period of 45 years. Of this time, 2 years are spent in the recruit service, 33 in the active army (during which period at least 10 days' actual service is required annually), and 10 years in the reserve. All recruits unable to read and write are given elementary instruction while in camp. The women of Montenegro are inured to hardship, and thus far little interest has been manifested in their education. There is a high school for girls, having about 100 pupils, maintained at the expense of the Empress of Russia.

ROUMANIA.

Using the term Balkan States in its geographic sense, Roumania should be included. Among the transformations wrought in that country by King Carol I, in the 31 years that have elapsed since he accepted the proffered crown, not the least important is the awakened spirit with regard to education. Provision has been made by law for a complete system of public instruction; and attendance upon elementary schools, where such exist, is compulsory for a period of four years, ages 8 to 12. The supply of public elementary schools steadily increases, and in addition to the elements of knowledge the spirit of patriotism is inculcated by all teachers. Under the vigorous rule of King Carol the revenue of the Kingdom has advanced from an annual value of \$10,000,000 to \$95,000,000; the extent of its railways from nothing to a length of 3,473 kilometers; and through the system of agricultural holdings and rural banks 5,979,000 acres of land have come into the possession of peasant owners. The annual expenditure for education, which in 1866 was practically nothing, now exceeds \$10,000,000 a year; thousands of schools have been built, lycées that will bear comparison with those of Paris, two universities, a medical school and auxiliary institutions, museum, libraries, etc. The talents and influence of the Queen, "Carmen Sylva," have awakened a passion for the liberal arts among the people and given Roumania an enviable reputation in the world of letters.

1880. - 1881. - 1882. - 1883. - 1884. - 1885. - 1886.

1887. - 1888. - 1889. - 1890. - 1891. - 1892. - 1893.

1894. - 1895. - 1896. - 1897. - 1898. - 1899. - 1900.

1901. - 1902. - 1903. - 1904. - 1905. - 1906. - 1907.

1908. - 1909. - 1910. - 1911. - 1912. - 1913. - 1914.

1915. - 1916. - 1917. - 1918. - 1919. - 1920. - 1921.

1922. - 1923. - 1924. - 1925. - 1926. - 1927. - 1928.

1929. - 1930. - 1931. - 1932. - 1933. - 1934. - 1935.

1936. - 1937. - 1938. - 1939. - 1940. - 1941. - 1942.

1943. - 1944. - 1945. - 1946. - 1947. - 1948. - 1949.

1950. - 1951. - 1952. - 1953. - 1954. - 1955. - 1956.

1957. - 1958. - 1959. - 1960. - 1961. - 1962. - 1963.

1964. - 1965. - 1966. - 1967. - 1968. - 1969. - 1970.

1971. - 1972. - 1973. - 1974. - 1975. - 1976. - 1977.

1978. - 1979. - 1980. - 1981. - 1982. - 1983. - 1984.

1985. - 1986. - 1987. - 1988. - 1989. - 1990. - 1991.

1992. - 1993. - 1994. - 1995. - 1996. - 1997. - 1998.

CHAPTER XXIII.

EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

CONTENTS: Magnitude and complexity of the population; Controlling authorities; Primary-school law of 1864; Educational work of the third Duma; Agencies for rural uplift; Secondary and higher education; Technical schools; Appropriations for education in 1911 and 1912.

MAGNITUDE AND COMPLEXITY OF THE POPULATION.

It is impossible to comprehend the current record of education in Russia without reference to certain social and political features of the Empire. Its area comprises one-seventh of the land surface of the globe; its population, as officially estimated in 1910, was 163,778,000, of whom 135,860,000 belonged to European Russia. In this division of the Empire the density of population is 68 per square mile; in Asiatic Russia, only 4 to a square mile. Finland, which up to a recent date was treated as an allied State, is not included in these estimates; as regards popular education, this Grand Duchy is far in advance of the Empire as a whole.

The city population of Russia is comparatively small, only 19 towns in the vast Empire having over 100,000 inhabitants; for the most part the peasant population is collected in small villages.

The established religion of the Empire is the Greco-Russian, officially called the "Orthodox faith." The adherents of the State church are estimated at 70 per cent of the population; the Mohammedans, numbering about 14 millions, at 11 per cent; and the Roman Catholics, about 11½ millions, at 9 per cent. Of the remainder, the Jews form the largest body, comprising 5½ millions, followed by the Lutherans with 3½ millions. Religion, which has been a determining force in education throughout the Empire, makes for diversity instead of unity, and this tendency is increased by the racial distinctions of the people. Considering, therefore, the population alone, its magnitude and complexity, the problem of education throughout Russia is one of enormous difficulty.

CONTROLLING AUTHORITIES.

Education is strictly controlled by the imperial authority, which is, theoretically although not actually, restricted by the action of the Duma, a representative body called into existence by decree of 1905,

and formed at present under a carefully prescribed electoral system. The chief Government agencies for the direction of schools and higher institutions are the minister of public instruction and the Holy Synod. The latter body, which has charge of parochial schools, is the supreme authority in ecclesiastical affairs, but subject to the Emperor in respect to its organization and its civil activities. Its membership consists of metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops, all appointed by the Emperor.

Other ministries control schools which are either special or established under special conditions. The schools called, collectively, the Empress Maria Institutions have a semiofficial character. The following table, compiled from the latest official report, summarizes the statistics of primary schools for 1910:

Statistics of primary schools.

| | Number
of
schools. | Number
of
teachers. | Number
of
pupils. |
|--|--------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| Ministry of Public Instruction..... | 37,046 | 84,121 | 2,650,058 |
| Holy Synod..... | 40,028 | 67,907 | 1,476,124 |
| Ministry of War..... | 848 | 1,058 | 46,420 |
| Ministry of Interior..... | 553 | 1,102 | 20,510 |
| Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria..... | 153 | 210 | 5,097 |
| Imperial Philanthropic Society..... | 40 | 179 | 2,822 |
| Ministry of the Court and Domains..... | 23 | 63 | 1,599 |
| Ministry of Finance..... | 4 | 12 | 237 |
| Ministry of Marine..... | 4 | | 379 |
| Total..... | 78,699 | 154,652 | 4,203,246 |

PRIMARY-SCHOOL LAW OF 1864.

The education of the common people excited little attention prior to the emancipation of the serfs in 1861. This action necessitated a readjustment of community life and industry, and the primary-school law of 1864 is one of the measures devised for that purpose; it was, indeed, necessary for the success of the other measures; for it was seen that unless the millions of freed people were taught at least the rudiments of knowledge it would be impossible to carry out the scheme for the redistribution of the land, the new judicial system, and the work of the zemstvos, the organs of local administration.

The law of 1864 authorized the union into a single group of schools of different denominations; required the admission of all children without distinction of creed, rank, or sex, unless separate schools were provided, and a common program for all. In addition to the three elementary branches, this program included church singing and religion. The religious instruction must be given by the parish priest or by a special instructor approved by the district school council. The Russian language alone was recognized as the medium of instruction. The zemstvos were authorized to establish and support public

schools; their control, however, was committed to district councils to be formed by the central authority, but including two representatives of the zemstvos. Modifications of the law of 1864 have increased the central control over the primary schools of all classes, and subsequent decrees have fostered parochial schools at the expense of the public schools, that is, those maintained by the zemstvos. Hence the spread of primary education has been hindered by the struggle between the two school systems, the public and the parochial, and between local and imperial authority.

EDUCATIONAL WORK OF THE THIRD DUMA.

Reactionary and progressive forces are contending for control throughout the entire field of educational activity. This struggle has been emphasized the present year by the measures passed by the Third Duma, but finally rejected by the Imperial Council. Their bearing is indicated by the following epitome of the action of the Duma, condensed from an article by the vice chairman of the education committee of that body.¹

The proceedings of the Duma in respect to education took two forms: Criticism of the defects of the present system and constructive legislation.

Criticism was made, as a rule, in addresses before the open sessions, and therefore excited much discussion in journals and public gatherings. The criticisms bore chiefly upon the "indifference of the Government," the "meagerness of the credits for education," the destructive influence of successive statutes, depriving higher institutions, especially the universities, of self-government, the formal character of secondary education, and measures restricting the progress of the public primary schools. Several prominent members of the education committee went so far as to oppose the appropriations for education in their reluctance to continue the present conditions.

The constructive work in education "was done chiefly in the committees of the budget and of education, partly in the committee on gymnasia, and also in conferences for the discussion of individual bills"; the ultimate decisions of the education committee were embodied in a series of bills most of which were passed by the Duma. Notwithstanding the fact that the Imperial Council failed to sanction these measures, they are of great interest as showing the convictions of the conservative leaders of progress in the Empire.

In addition to securing "very satisfactory statistics," the Duma established certain principles, or "new traditions," which it is believed will gradually work themselves into the educational policies

¹ Cited, by permission, from an article by Evgrav Kovalevsky, "The Duma and Public Instruction," Russian Review, July, 1912.

of the Government. The outcome is summed up by Mr. Kovalevsky as follows:

The first of these new traditions is the advocacy of the interests of teachers of all schools and of all ranks, which has taken the form of increase of salary, periodical augmentations, and, lastly, pensions for the teachers of lower schools. (Law of June 14, 1910.)

We have already spoken of the sympathetic attitude of the Duma toward women in the sphere of education.

Besides this—

acting on a broad conception of educational needs, the Imperial Duma was always disposed to support the wish of non-Russian nationalities to preserve their culture and languages, within limits which did not openly infringe the interest of the State.

An important factor in the legislative work of the Duma was its aim of decentralizing the administration of schools and associating unofficial bodies and private persons with the work of public education.

It is a great thing to have brought system into the extension of school work and to have established the principles of universal and free education.

Very typical have been the efforts made to destroy in the school system all class barriers and to democratize schools of all types.

Lastly, we may remark the readiness of the Duma to meet the actual needs of the population, not confining itself within the hard and fast limits of general theories of education at the expense of practical knowledge, but also not harnessing itself to utilitarian knowledge which denies the profit of general culture.

Such, we may say, is the theoretical side of the inheritance which the third Imperial Duma can hand over to the fourth; the practical results can be expressed in two figures. If we add up all the credits which have passed through the budget committee, including the ministries of finance, commerce, war, agriculture, and others, in five years the budget of public education has reached 170,000,000 rubles, while in 1907 it was only 85,000,000 rubles. In other words, the budget has doubled; and in 5 years of the representative régime, we have assigned to education a sum as large as that which was spent on it in the preceding 105 years under the old régime (1802-1907).

These are the results of the work of the third Duma on public instruction, which, of themselves alone, eloquently show that the last five years of the new order of things have not passed without leaving their mark on Russia.

To the external observer, the most important measure approved by the Duma was that establishing the principle of universal and free education. This was not done by a sweeping provision, but by a gradual process consisting of several financial measures passed at different times, but all tending to the same purpose. With respect to these Mr. Kovalevsky says:

The Duma often made use of its own legislative initiative, but it also took much trouble over the examination of a whole series of bills presented by the Government. Its first attention and the chief interest of the country in general were directed to primary education. During the first session, in the spring, there was presented for discussion by the whole house a bill which, in spite of its modest title, was of extreme importance to education in Russia. It was a proposal to assign 6,900,000 rubles for educational needs in connection with the introduction of universal education. It fell to the writer of this article to pilot through the Duma this bill and all other credits proposed for the same purpose. Sanctioned as law on May 16, 1908, this modest financial proposal settled the question of universal education in Russia. In it were also to be found those principles which were further developed in the law on universal education

adopted in the fourth session of the Duma. This was the first time that the Government had taken the line of subsidizing the local organs of self-government on a large and systematic scale, for the development of primary schools. The adoption of the principle of free education, and also of direct cooperation of the State with the district councils, and the raising of the teachers' salaries to a minimum of 360 rubles, were the advances made in this law. In the following sessions the Duma adopted, almost without debate, financial proposals completing and extending the law of May 16, by assigning credits of 6,000,000 rubles in 1909, 10,000,000 rubles in 1910, 7,000,000 rubles in 1911, and 9,000,000 rubles in 1912.¹

Equally important was the so-called building law. The foundation of new schools, of course, demanded new buildings. The building fund, named after Peter the Great, was taken as the nucleus for giving systematic subsidies and loans to the local representative bodies for building schools. After the first step of assigning seven millions to the requirements of primary education, the second step became inevitable. The general question of universal education could not be advanced without settling that of requirements for building. The Duma decided to grant, in 1909, 1,000,000 rubles; in 1910, 4,000,000 rubles; in 1911, 10,000,000 rubles; and in 1912 the same. These sums constituted a fund which was only to supplement local resources for building. In all, with remains from credits for the maintenance of primary schools, school building in the course of these five years has cost the ministry of public instruction 47,000,000 rubles. On July 5, 1909, was sanctioned the law creating this fund, and regulations were made for allotting both free subsidies and loans, in the proportion of 80 per cent of the cost of building.

Although the measures passed by the third Duma have not been sanctioned by the Imperial Council, and therefore have not become effective, its work has been eminently constructive; it has formulated principles which the succeeding Duma must take into consideration, and it has aroused and helped to focus public opinion on vital matters.

AGENCIES FOR RURAL UPLIFT.

Apart from legislative progress and the growth of public opinion, there are two agencies working in Russia directly for the uplift of the rural populations which deserve special mention. Early in the nineteenth century the ministry of imperial domains began to establish village schools for the peasants on these properties. The schools were maintained by taxes levied on the peasants themselves, and were intended particularly to train clerks needed in the work of rural administration.

From this initiative the idea of providing rural schools adapted to local conditions has spread to other ministries, and has engaged the active efforts of many proprietors of large estates as well as of private associations. Hence the need of distinction between rural schools and those of populous urban centers, which is claiming attention in the United States, has already worked itself into the educational policies of Russia.

¹ The exchange value of a ruble is 51½ cents.

The second agency referred to is that of the peasant industries, the importance of which is greatly enhanced by recent efforts on the part of the Imperial Government and local authorities to increase their financial resources and prospects.

The position of the peasant in Russia, his well-being or his poverty, is due largely to the existence of the organized peasant industries which have resulted from the instinct for cooperative work fostered by the institutions of the "mir" in the villages, and of the "artel," or voluntary associations of workmen. As a rule, only one industry is to be found in each village, as spoon making, linen weaving, or ikon painting. According to one authority—

The most recent investigations seem to show that there are more than \$8,000,000 of the inhabitants of European Russia whose time is shared between agriculture and some form of industrial handicraft, meaning by this term the production of some sort of merchandise for sale, not for use in the family of the producer; and about 4,000,000, or thereabouts, whose whole time is engaged in handicrafts and small machine industries not grouped in the modern factory system. Where the wares produced are desirable and salable, the concomitant advantage of a healthy home life to the producer is a national asset. * * *

The governments of Moscow, Vladimir, Yaroslaff, and Kostroma are the principal linen and flax weaving centers, the drawn-thread work of Vladimir being well known and much appreciated in London and Paris.

The metal work of the villager ranges from the roughest article of daily use for the peasants' own needs to finely wrought filigree and enameled jewelry and to frames for ikons of the greatest merit. Their lace and embroidery have already found a market in the first-class shops of London and Paris. Wood and horn carving finds a ready sale all over the Continent, and the quaint toys are eagerly acquired not only by English and French children but also by their elders.¹

The Moscow zemstvo in 1885 started a museum in that city for the exhibit of the peasant industries of that government, and in 1888 created a special commission to direct and extend the work. At the present time there are more than 15 provincial and district zemstvos supplying the koustari (peasants) with raw material, and an extremely important form of help to the koustarnui industry by the zemstvos is the supplying of the koustari with financial aid.

The interests of the koustarnui industry are intrusted to the department of rural economy and statistics of the ministry of agriculture. This department employs a special staff of experts in different branches of koustarnui work, has 12 technical schools managed by State instructors, lends money on long credit, subsidizes koustarnui stores and workshops, publishes albums of drawings and designs, organizes exhibitions, and helps to maintain the St. Petersburg Koustarnui Museum, started by the Government in 1900. Besides this, when the State gives orders for koustarnui goods, the department acts as intermediary between the zemstvos and the respective Government institutions and, further, offers financial aid in exporting the products abroad.²

¹ Russian Year Book, 1912, pp. 707-708.

² Ibid., 1912, p. 717.

The department expended on this work in 1910 a total of 848,500 rubles (\$424,250).

SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

The history of secondary and higher education in Russia during the past 50 years is marked by a constant struggle between the principles of liberty and institutional autonomy on the one hand and those of official restriction and autocratic control on the other. The growing disposition to give free scope for the development of liberal education was reflected in the discussions of the Duma and is embodied in the summary of its legislative work already cited. The present provision of secondary schools and higher institutions and the extent of their operations are indicated by the tables which follow:

Tabular view of middle or secondary schools, 1910.

| Classes. | Number. | Instruc-tors and
directors. | Number
of pupils. | Expenditure. | |
|--|---------|--------------------------------|----------------------|------------------|------------------------------|
| | | | | Total (ru-bles). | United States
equivalent. |
| Ministry of public instruction: | | | | | |
| Gymnasia..... | 293 | 7,977 | 111,828 | 15,734,646 | \$8,129,092.69 |
| Progymnasia..... | 35 | 503 | 6,052 | | |
| Real schools..... | 214 | 3,466 | 63,085 | 7,554,229 | 3,890,427.93 |
| Teachers' institutes..... | 15 | | 1,041 | 463,097 | 238,494.95 |
| Teachers' seminaries..... | 87 | 1,079 | 8,254 | 2,500,613 | 1,287,815.69 |
| Gymnasia for girls..... | 590 | 17,886 | 219,731 | 14,721,001 | 7,581,315.51 |
| Progymnasia for girls..... | 117 | 1,612 | 17,937 | | |
| Technical schools..... | 68 | 1,315 | 10,383 | 2,298,945 | 1,183,956.67 |
| Empress Maria, middle schools..... | 19 | 221 | 3,266 | 130,747 | 67,334.70 |
| Holy Synod (1907): | | | | | |
| Seminaries..... | 57 | | 16,487 | | |
| Other middle schools..... | 183 | | 30,143 | | |
| Schools for girls..... | 73 | | 23,241 | | |
| Total (reported)..... | 1,751 | 34,059 | 511,448 | 43,453,278 | 22,378,438.17 |

Statistics of the universities.

| Universities. | Number of
professors
(1910). | Number of
students
(1912). |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| European Russia: | | |
| St. Petersburg..... | 236 | 8,224 |
| Moscow..... | 673 | 9,666 |
| Kharkof..... | 210 | 3,315 |
| Kasan..... | 243 | 2,955 |
| St. Vladimir in Kiev..... | 231 | |
| Saratov..... | 12 | 284 |
| Warsaw (Poland)..... | 98 | 2,247 |
| Yuryeff (formerly Dorpat)..... | 149 | 2,868 |
| Total..... | 1,852 | 29,559 |
| Siberia: | | |
| Novorossiysk (Odessa)..... | 188 | 2,756 |
| Tomsk..... | 100 | 2,272 |
| Total..... | 288 | 5,028 |
| Grand total..... | 2,140 | 34,587 |

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN.

The great forward movements in higher education during the past 50 years pertain to the education of women and to the extension of technical education.

The movement for the higher education of women has been deeply involved with socialistic and revolutionary tendencies, and has, therefore, been the object of suspicion on the part of the conservative forces of the Empire. At the same time the demand for educated women in the teaching profession and in the medical service has proved irresistible, and the Government has finally assumed a sympathetic attitude toward the movement. Provision for the training of teachers is made by seminaries, which are included under the head of secondary institutions. These seminaries number at present 87, of which 81 are maintained by the Government, and 6 by communal or private agencies. An interesting feature of this provision is the establishment of seminaries to prepare teachers for Tartar, Chuvash, Kirghiz, and other tribal schools. In addition to the seminaries, pedagogical courses are maintained in connection with higher urban schools and secondary schools for girls, and lectures on the theory and art of teaching are also given by university professors at St. Petersburg and Moscow; the tendency to bring the training of teachers more and more within the sphere of university influence increases.

Although the universities of Russia have been closed to women, courses of instruction of the university standard were provided for them in 1911, as follows:

St. Petersburg higher courses for women, comprising: The historico-philological section, 2,150 students; the physico-mathematical section, 1,507; and the law section, 625. The age of the students ranged from 17 to 50, while the greatest number fell between the ages of 19 and 28. Most of the students were graduates of gymnasia of the ministry of public instruction, and of the Institutions of Empress Maria.

The Moscow higher courses for women, with 4,676 students, comprising: The historico-philological section, 2,383 students; the physico-mathematical section, 1,318; and the medical section, 975.

The St. Petersburg Medical Institute for Women, organized in 1904, had 1,618 students in 1910, and is maintained at an annual expenditure of about 316,000 rubles (\$160,000), of which the Government supplies a little more than one-third.

TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

Provision for technical education of various degrees is a feature of the general movement for the development of the immense resources of the Empire and their conversion into commercial products.

The need of trained workmen and of directors of large industries was first met by the establishment of technical schools in particular places, under the charge of different ministries. In 1881 these schools were all transferred to the ministry of public instruction, and gradually under this direction a system of technical schools has been organized, comprising: (1) Lower technical schools which combine with the elements of knowledge technical training required for the ruder kind of mechanical work—for machinists, draftsmen, etc.; (2) technical schools which provide for general education of the secondary order, combined with technical training required for assistant engineers or foremen in the smaller industrial enterprises. Higher technical institutions were already established before the industrial movement set in and were intended to prepare experts for the service of the State. The scope of the higher institutions has necessarily been increased and some additions made to their number through the industrial pressure. There are at present six institutions of this order, as shown by the following table:

Technical institutions (1910).

| | Number of professors. | Number of students. |
|---|-----------------------|---------------------|
| EUROPEAN RUSSIA. | | |
| St. Petersburg Technological Institute | 106 | 2,300 |
| Karkov Technological Institute | 71 | 1,400 |
| Moscow Technical School | 103 | 3,000 |
| Novo-Alexandriyski Institute of Agronomy and Forestry | 47 | 600 |
| Riga Polytechnical Institute | 84 | 1,839 |
| Total | 411 | 9,139 |
| SIBERIA. | | |
| Tomsk Technological Institute | 72 | 1,346 |
| Grand total | 483 | 10,485 |

APPROPRIATIONS FOR EDUCATION IN 1911 AND 1912.

The State appropriations for education in 1911 were as follows: Ministry of public instruction, 91,694,204 rubles (\$47,222,410); other ministries for the support of schools, 13,269,204 rubles (\$6,833,640); total, 104,563,204 rubles (\$56,056,050). The corresponding amounts for 1912 were: Ministry of public instruction, 114,436,072 rubles (\$58,934,577); other ministries, 17,289,039 rubles (\$8,903,855); total, 131,725,111 rubles (\$67,838,432). For elementary schools alone the minister of public instruction in 1911 expended 46,083,000 rubles and the Holy Synod about 15,000,000, making a total of 61,083,000 rubles (\$31,457,745).

CHAPTER XXIV.

CURRENT MOVEMENTS IN ASIA AND AFRICA.

CONTENTS : Asia—Spread of modern influences ; System of public instruction in Japan ; Imperial ordinance respecting education in Chosen. India—System of education ; The present outlook ; Statistical summary ; Evidence of the efficiency of the system of public instruction ; The rural masses. Modern education in Africa—Algeria ; Egypt ; The coast regions ; Union of South Africa.

ASIA.

SPREAD OF MODERN INFLUENCES.

The continent of Asia challenges attention by the rapid spread of modern influences over its vast area, which are marked throughout their progress by the rise of schools and educational systems. Siberia is included in the Russian plans for public instruction ; Persia is modifying its schools under European influences ; Arabia is affected by the forces that are slowly transforming all Moslem peoples ; China is in a ferment of educational activity;¹ Siam has modernized all its schools ; Japan and India are, respectively, fields of the two greatest educational experiments of modern times ; and the Dutch in Java and the Americans in the Philippines are conducting the greatest work in race education.

SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN JAPAN.

Administration.—The system of public instruction in Japan resembles that of France in its general organization and administration. Control of the system is centralized in the minister of state for education, who is assisted by a vice minister, chiefs of bureaus, and a superior council, which is an advisory body. The official staff of the department includes experts for the examination of textbooks, and a corps of technologists who advise as to school buildings, hygienic matters, and questions pertaining to technical education. The Em-

¹ See Bull. of Bur. of Educ., 1911, No. 15, The Educational System of China as Recently Reconstructed, by Harry Edwin King, vice president of the Peking University.

pire is divided into five circuits, each in charge of an inspector appointed by the minister. For local educational administration the country is divided into the Hokkaido (territory of the aborigines), 3 "fu" and 43 "ken," which correspond to the Departments or "prefectures" of France, and these are subdivided into "guns" or cantons. The educational affairs of the main divisions are under the control of their chief executive officers, who are appointed by the Emperor, but in each division and also in the "guns" the minister of education is represented by inspectors. The inspectors, the directors of special classes of schools, presidents of the imperial universities, etc., are all selected by examination or by official promotion, and are members of the superior council, which also includes representative men distinguished for learning or educational experience. The council, therefore, brings to the service of an imperial and highly centralized system professional advice and disinterested councils.

Current movements.—Since the close of the war with Russia the educational system has been the subject of renewed concern to the Government because of the increasing complexity of the internal affairs of the Empire and of its international relations, and for the additional reason, expressed by the minister, because "the popular tide of ideas and sentiments, which had been disturbed by the late war, has been liable to impede the healthy currents of educational principles and measures."

The purpose of the Government to enlarge provision for popular education and to deepen its influence upon the character of the people is indicated by an extension of the compulsory period by two years—covering ages 6 to 12 years instead of 6 to 10 as formerly—by additional measures for securing well-trained teachers, and by greater stress on moral training as an essential feature of the elementary programs. During the past year the textbooks on morality were revised and—

the principles of loyalty and filial piety were made clearer than ever in conformity to the spirit of the imperial rescript on education, and special care was taken in explaining and enforcing the unique characteristics of the Japanese people.

Secondary education has also been the subject of investigation and discussion in order that advantage may be taken of the experience of foreign countries in this important field, with a view to such modifications of the secondary schools of Japan as accord with the institutions of that country. In this relation the minister observes that—

the success or failure of secondary education not only has much to do with special and university education, but also exerts a great influence upon the refinement of the middle class of the people.

The provision made for the education of women is the most remarkable outcome of the modern movement in Japan. In the ordinary elementary schools the number of girls is very nearly equal to the number of boys, and comprises 84 per cent of the girls of school ages, as against 86 per cent in the case of boys. The number of girls in high schools has increased rapidly, rising from 31,574 in 1905-6 to 51,437 in 1909-10, an increase of 63 per cent in half a decade. The private university for women, founded in 1901 with the support of the leading men of the country, including Marquis Ito, Count Okuma, and Baron Utsumi, and encouraged by the active efforts of the Empress, has awakened keen interest in the higher education of women, an interest which is constantly stimulated by the influence of its graduates who are distributed throughout the Empire. The Japanese Women's Education Society not only promotes the university cause, but in addition provision for training girls in handicrafts, according to the demands of Japanese industry.

Technical education has naturally derived a new impulse from the expansion of the Empire. Provision has been made for new technical schools, carefully adapted to the needs of special localities, and the schools already established have been more perfectly equipped and their programs revised. By an imperial ordinance of March, 1908, the Kagoshima Higher School of Agriculture and Forestry was founded, and the school was opened and instruction commenced in September of that year. The same ordinance sanctioned the founding of the Uyeda Special School of Sericulture and Filature, the Otaru Higher Commercial School, the Yonezawa Higher Technical School, the Akita Special School of Mining, etc., which are to be opened next year.

Recent measures pertaining to the imperial universities are intended to extend their scope, raise their standards, or increase their resources. In the college of law of the Imperial University of Tokyo a commercial course was established, to be opened in September of the current year; in the college of literature all branches of the curriculum were made obligatory. Funds are provided to enable young men who have been appointed as assistant professors in the universities to make special preparation for their duties by foreign study. The Tohoku Imperial University includes at present only the Sapporo Agricultural College, which was raised to university rank in 1909, since which time the requirements for admission and graduation have been increased and several new departments added, in particular a department of forestry and a department of agricultural engineering. Arrangements are now in progress for the establishment of colleges of science and of liberal arts to complete the university organization.

Statistical summary of schools and universities, 1909-10.

| Classes of institutions. | Number of schools. | | | | Instructors and teachers. | | | | Students and pupils. | | | | Graduates. | | | |
|---|------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|--------|------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|---------|------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | Gov-
ern-
ment, ¹ | Pub-
lic, | Pri-
vate, | Total, | Gov-
ern-
ment, ¹ | Pub-
lic, | Pri-
vate, | Total, | Gov-
ern-
ment, ¹ | Pub-
lic, | Pri-
vate, | Total, | Total. | | | |
| Elementary schools. | 3 | 25,898 | 183 | 26,084 | 62 | 143,709 | 735 | 144,506 | 1,047 | 6,438,142 | 33,803 | 6,473,532 | 226 | 725,277 | 3,139 | |
| Schools for the blind and dumb. | 1 | 2 | 39 | 42 | 17 | 42 | 183 | 242 | 371 | 3,564 | 2,003 | 52 | 56 | 157 | 265 | |
| Normal schools. | 1 | 78 | 78 | 1406 | 1,406 | 1,406 | 1,078 | 23,422 | 23,422 | 23,422 | 23,422 | 211 | 8,588 | 8,588 | 211 | |
| Higher normal schools. | 2 | 2 | 2 | 124 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 424 | 424 | 1,078 | 1,078 | 211 | | | | |
| Higher normal schools for girls. | 2 | 2 | 2 | 62 | 2 | 62 | 62 | 450 | 450 | 450 | 450 | 91 | | | 91 | |
| Special institutes for the training of teachers. | 2 | 241 | 62 | 305 | 2 | 20 | 20 | 5891 | 5,891 | 21,530 | 118,133 | 53 | 12,801 | 3,271 | 16,236 | |
| Middle schools. | 1 | 135 | 42 | 178 | 21 | 2,067 | 1,132 | 2,743 | 341 | 10,368 | 40,872 | 40,872 | 51,781 | 99 | 8,961 | 2,439 |
| High schools for girls. | 8 | 8 | 8 | 332 | 332 | 332 | 332 | 6,029 | 6,029 | 6,029 | 6,029 | 1,209 | 1,209 | 1,209 | 1,209 | |
| High schools. | 3 | 3 | 3 | 394 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 594 | 7,559 | 7,559 | 7,559 | 7,559 | 1,761 | 1,761 | 1,761 | 1,761 |
| Imperial universities. | 8 | 4 | 4 | 60 | 263 | 112 | 1,385 | 1,760 | 4,425 | 1,536 | 20,984 | 26,945 | 947 | 235 | 3,109 | 4,311 |
| Special schools. | 14 | 5,338 | 292 | 5,644 | 452 | 4,903 | 1,219 | 6,574 | 6,484 | 263,329 | 20,089 | 288,902 | 1,843 | 57,989 | 4,459 | 64,291 |
| Technical schools. | 3 | 3 | 3 | 891 | 1,357 | 2,248 | 2,248 | 701 | 7,153 | 7,854 | 184 | 184 | 53 | 53 | 53 | 53 |
| Institutes for the training of technical school teachers. | 3 | 3 | 3 | 891 | 1,357 | 2,248 | 2,248 | 701 | 7,153 | 7,854 | 184 | 184 | 53 | 53 | 53 | 53 |
| Miscellaneous schools. | 49 | 32,587 | 2,023 | 34,650 | 1,993 | 157,663 | 12,462 | 172,108 | 29,320 | 6,897,631 | 223,519 | 7,150,470 | 6,596 | 821,090 | 51,603 | 879,289 |
| Total. | 47 | 32,347 | 1,982 | 34,376 | 1,854 | 146,693 | 12,331 | 160,878 | 27,921 | 6,372,807 | 226,376 | 6,627,104 | 6,467 | 551,560 | 49,494 | 607,521 |
| 1908-9. | 48 | 33,189 | 1,960 | 35,197 | 1,788 | 133,454 | 11,844 | 147,086 | 26,222 | 6,327,868 | 226,272 | 6,327,868 | 5,500 | 1,220,483 | 53,025 | 1,279,608 |
| 1907-8. | 47 | 32,494 | 1,920 | 34,461 | 1,636 | 126,488 | 11,487 | 139,568 | 24,658 | 5,840,075 | 218,548 | 5,671 | 1,035,164 | 50,345 | 1,151,180 | |
| 1906-7. | 47 | 31,150 | 1,792 | 32,989 | 1,567 | 119,497 | 10,466 | 131,530 | 23,444 | 5,615,980 | 201,878 | 5,841,302 | 4,883 | 1,124,711 | 41,455 | 1,171,059 |

¹ By the Government establishments are meant all institutions under the control of the Department of Education.

The total expenditure for education in 1909-10 was 76,650,922 yen, equivalent to \$38,172,159. Of this amount, 57,076,003 yen (\$28,423,850) was incurred for elementary schools. The entire expenditure for education as compared with the previous year showed an increase of 5,903,938 yen, of which increase 93 per cent was for ordinary expenditures.

IMPERIAL ORDINANCE RESPECTING EDUCATION IN CHOSÉN.¹

The spirit and purposes which animate and direct education in Japan are reflected in the imperial ordinance of August 23, 1911, relating to education in Chosen (Korea). The ordinance provides for three grades of education, common, industrial, and special, which are defined as follows:

Common education shall aim at imparting common knowledge and art, with special attention to engendering national ideas and the spread of the national language.

Industrial education will include the study of agriculture, commerce, and technical industries.

Special education shall embrace the higher branches of science and the arts.

The common schools, following the Japanese system, are classed as elementary schools, at which attendance is obligatory for all children, ages 8 to 12, and high schools, in which the sexes are separated. Boys are admitted for a four years' course at the full age of 12 years, while girls are admitted for a three years' course at the full age of 12 years. Both boys and girls must be graduates of the common schools. Special courses in sewing and domestic manual work are provided for girls.

Provision is made for normal schools for both sexes, and the industrial schools prepare their students for agriculture, commerce, or technical industries according to local needs.

The special schools "giving instruction in higher science and arts" are arranged for either a three or a four years' course. While the ordinance prescribes the main features of the system, the full details are left to the Governor General, who is also invested with the very extensive power of making necessary arrangements affecting schools which have been heretofore established in Chosen, irrespective of the provisions of the ordinance.

In all classes of schools, inculcating the love of the country in the minds of young Koreans and the spread of the knowledge of Japanese among them must be steadily maintained.

¹ Information furnished by Geo. H. Scidmore, United States consul general to Seoul, Chosen.

INDIA.**SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.**

The system of education established by the British Government in India has recently assumed a new character, a change full of suggestion for every nation charged with similar responsibilities. No other undertaking of the kind, it is true, is comparable with that attempted in India, which, by reason of its vast population, variety of races and religions, deep-rooted social system, extremes of culture and ignorance, presented unparalleled obstacles to the introduction of foreign ideas and customs.

It is not intended to review the history of the educational experiment, which dates from the now famous dispatch of 1854, by which the home Government "laid down with fullness and precision the principles that were to guide the Indian Government in the performance of their great task." The main features of the educational policy here outlined have been maintained to the present time, and form the administrative framework of the educational system. This comprises (1) the constitution of educational departments in the several Provinces (formerly presidencies); (2) the establishment of universities at the presidency towns; (3) the support of training schools for teachers; (4) the maintenance of the existing Government colleges and high schools, and the increase of their number; (5) the establishment of new middle schools; (6) increased attention to vernacular schools, indigenous or other, for elementary education; (7) the introduction of a system of Government "grants-in-aid"; (8) a system of inspection with periodical reports to the provincial governments.

The outline of this system may be taken as an index to its operations: It afforded ample opportunity for building up an official caste; for placing chief stress on higher education of an English type through the establishment of Government institutions for that purpose; for encouraging a superficial interest in the English language as a passport to civil and commercial posts; and it left elementary education practically without form or direction. The progress of the system and its defects were set forth with great candor by successive commissions appointed to examine into its operations. The need of a central directive force was urged in particular by the commission of 1882, and after two decades, with ever-increasing proof of the failure of the system to improve the condition of the people as a whole, the office of Director General of Education was created in 1902, and in 1904 there was issued a Government document dealing with the subject, which bears the signature of Lord Curzon. This "resolution," as it was called, declared in no uncertain terms the determination of the viceroy to employ the forces at his com-

mand for the realization of purposes which had hitherto been ignored. These purposes were, (1) the education of the people through the use of the vernacular tongues; (2) the development of indigenous handicrafts; (3) the systematic development of the agricultural resources of the Empire.

THE PRESENT OUTLOOK.

In the eight years that have elapsed since the order of 1904 was issued these purposes have been steadily maintained. The first effort of the director general was to get into clear view the educational problem from the native standpoint in place of the official; this effort has resulted in a series of "occasional reports" which, written in popular style, focus attention upon the rural school, its problems and possibilities as they exist in India, and in comparison also with the same problems in other countries. The work has been accompanied by practical measures for the improvement of rural education in all the provinces.

The central authority for education has developed into a department whose chief is a member of the council of the Governor General, or, to use the current title, minister of education, a change which for the present insures greater prestige and larger resources for the system.

The presence of King George at the "durbar" held at Delhi December 12, 1911, gave occasion for the announcement of changes in the Government policy with respect to India. An increased grant amounting to 50 lakhs of ruppees (\$1,620,000) was pledged for popular education, and on the part of the Government the intention was declared of "making education in India as accessible as possible." The hope excited by this action has been raised still higher by the speech made in August, 1912, in the House of Commons by Mr. Montagu, undersecretary of state for India, in support of the Indian budget. In a summary of this address the London Times says:

The government of India are introducing extensive schemes for the enlargement and improvement of facilities for primary education. In the past it was justly complained that the British in India devoted themselves too exclusively to higher education, and neglected the equally important question of primary schools. They sought to build the steeple before the church had been erected. That reproach is now in process of removal. The program sketched by Mr. Montagu will ultimately increase the total number of primary schools by 90,000, or 75 per cent, and will double the school-going population. The average expenditure on each primary school will be doubled, and the wretched pay of the teachers will be substantially increased.

* * * Similar large developments are proposed in the systems of secondary and university education. * * * The government of India are already proposing to carry their new ideals into practice in the university about to be

established at Dacca. Similar universities are projected at Benares and Rangoon. The older institutions will gradually be transformed. The Mahomedan College at Aligarh, which already fulfills in great measure the new requirements, will probably be raised to the dignity of a university. When these broad and sweeping changes have been carried out the evils which have hitherto seemed almost inseparable from Indian university education, particularly in Bengal, may well tend to disappear.

The increase in resources is, however, less important than the proposed change in their distribution. In the decade 1900 to 1910 the total expenditure doubled, rising from $11\frac{1}{4}$ million dollars to nearly 23 millions; but the greater part of this amount went to the support of secondary and higher education, instead of being devoted to the spread of popular education. To this purpose the special appropriation and the increase of the ordinary appropriation, both promised at the durbar, are to be devoted. Even these increased Government grants, however, will, it is urged, accomplish little unless they are met by equal liberality on the part of the provincial and municipal authorities.

From the latest statistics it appears that about $5\frac{1}{4}$ million children attend the elementary schools, but this number comprises only 30 per cent of the boys of school-going age and 5 per cent of the girls. Census estimates show that there are hundreds of thousands of Indian children living far beyond the "3-mile limit" distance from a school, and even for those within reach of a school there are few competent teachers. In the quinquennial report covering the years 1902-1907 it was declared that if the whole of the direct expenditure on primary education were devoted to the salary of teachers it would yield on an average only 8 rupees (\$2.60) a month. The local authorities were all agreed as to the pressing necessity of improving the teaching service, and while some progress in this respect has been made in the past five years, the appropriation of the whole amount of the special grant to the salaries of teachers would not meet this one need.

It should be observed further that in the present plans for India the expression "popular education" is taken in its full sense, including not simply the three Rs, but provision for industrial training on the basis of native arts and crafts. This purpose strikes to the deepest roots of Indian community life and organization.

The task to which the government of India stands pledged will be better appreciated by a consideration of the population to be reached and the present extent of the system of modern education as shown by official statistics.

STATISTICAL SUMMARY.

Population.—The fourth general census of India, taken on the 10th of March, 1911, gives as the total population 315,132,537. Of this total, 244,267,542, or 78 per cent, were comprised in British

India; the remaining 22 per cent pertain to native States, which sustain certain relations to the British Government, but have independent management of education. Considering the entire Empire, the population was divided by religions as follows: Hindus, 69 per cent of the total; Mohammedans, 21 per cent; Buddhists (nearly all in Burma), 3 per cent; leaving 7 per cent for all other religions. According to Whitaker's Almanac about two-thirds of this population "depend directly on agriculture," while many others are partially dependent on the same industry. About 6 per cent are engaged in earthwork and general labor. The cotton industry supported over 7,500,000 persons in 1901, more than two-thirds of whom depend on hand weaving. There are 5,500,000 persons in Government service, civil or military. According to the census of 1901, there are 147 vernacular languages of extraordinary variety in use in the Empire. Hindustani, a dialect of Hindi, has become the literary language of Hindustan, and is the "lingua franca of India."

Summary of educational statistics, 1909-10.

| | Institutions. | | | Scholars. | | |
|--|---------------|--------------|---------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | For males. | For females. | Total. | Males. | Females. | Total. |
| Public institutions: | | | | | | |
| Higher education— | | | | | | |
| Professional colleges..... | 45 | 3 | 48 | 6,220 | 125 | 6,345 |
| Arts colleges..... | 129 | 8 | 137 | 22,967 | 217 | 23,184 |
| Secondary education..... | 5,801 | 642 | 6,443 | 786,989 | 77,004 | 863,993 |
| Primary education..... | 107,508 | 11,762 | 119,270 | 3,890,150 | 668,969 | 4,559,119 |
| Special education (training schools
for teachers, commercial, agricultural,
etc.)..... | 4,925 | 94 | 5,019 | 125,200 | 17,933 | 143,133 |
| Total public..... | 118,408 | 12,509 | 130,917 | 4,831,526 | 764,248 | 5,595,774 |
| Private institutions: | | | | | | |
| Advanced..... | 2,922 | 22 | 2,944 | 50,995 | 1,958 | 52,953 |
| Elementary..... | 34,955 | 1,653 | 36,608 | 497,920 | 65,271 | 563,191 |
| Total private..... | 37,877 | 1,675 | 39,552 | 548,915 | 67,229 | 616,144 |
| Grand total..... | | | 170,469 | | | 6,211,918 |

Distribution of students pursuing professional studies.

| | In colleges. | In special schools. |
|------------------|--------------|---------------------|
| Law..... | 2,879 | 126 |
| Medicine..... | 1,569 | 3,624 |
| Engineering..... | 1,203 | 1,150 |
| Teaching..... | 434 | 12,105 |
| Agriculture..... | 260 | 6 |
| Total..... | 6,345 | 17,011 |

¹ Of these, 1,494 were women.

In addition to the professional courses of instruction comprised in the above table, there were other special schools, as follows: Schools of art, with 1,673 students; technical and industrial schools, students 8,447; commercial schools, students 1,460; altogether a total of 34,936 preparing either for the liberal professions or for technical and art industries.

In 1910, the year to which the foregoing statistics pertain, the total expenditure for education in India was £4,592,487; it increased in the following year to £4,780,000 (\$23,230,800). Of the latter amount, more than half, namely, £2,460,000, was met from public funds; the remainder from private funds, fees, subscriptions, etc. The public funds are derived from provincial revenues, which contributed two-thirds of the total, and local and municipal funds the remaining one-third.

The provincial funds are made up from imperial grants and the revenues of the respective Provinces. The increased grant, announced on the occasion of the Delhi durbar, was not available until 1911-12, and consequently does not figure in these estimates.

EVIDENCES OF THE EFFICIENCY OF THE SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

It need hardly be said that the efficiency of the Indian system of education can not be estimated by the standards applied in other countries, as extent of illiteracy or amount of school attendance. Modern education in India is developing under conditions and involves problems that are nowhere else encountered. It must, therefore, be judged from standpoints peculiar to itself; such are the increase in the number of girls brought under instruction and the growing interest of Mohammedans in the schools, for progress in both respects is the sign of the breaking up of social customs and religious prejudices that offered from the first the greatest opposition to the spread of modern education. It is, therefore, of deep significance that the number of girls under instruction in secondary schools in 1900, viz, 41,356, had increased to 66,228 in 1910, or by 62 per cent; and the number of girls in primary schools from 192,496 to 389,343, or an increase of 104 per cent. During the same period the number of Mohammedans attending schools under Government or private management in which modern secular instruction is given increased from 946,988 to 1,394,088, or 47 per cent.

The fact should also be emphasized that the leading native States have not only modeled their systems of education on that maintained by the British Government, but have made even greater progress in the application of its principles.

THE RURAL MASSES.

The manner in which the agricultural department of India supplements the department of education and the difficulties with which both have to contend are indicated by the following extracts from a recent consular report from Calcutta.

The dense ignorance and determined conservatism of the greater portion of the agricultural population of India are commonplaces of knowledge. They are lamented by all who have at heart the progress of that class, and of the Empire. By none are they lamented more sincerely than by the officers of the Indian agricultural department. These have, ever since they began experimenting with Indian agricultural conditions, sought anxiously for means whereby the ignorance of the average peasant farmers, the raiyat and zemindar, could be informed, and early and radical reforms introduced into the methods of husbandry. The legends of the ignorant West about the wonderful fertility of India are fading. Men do not now talk with Burke of the land where the earth had only to be tickled with the hoe in order to laugh with a harvest. The very moderate fertility of the soil of India has now been appreciated at its proper worth and due heed paid to the precarious nature of the rainfall upon which the greater part of the land must depend for the feeding of its crops, however great may be the extension of the irrigation canals. Now, with rare exceptions, the methods pursued by Indian husbandmen are as wasteful as those of the average American farmer. They lead directly to the deterioration of soil and of stock. The yield per acre, good in new-broken lands, soon is reduced by overcropping and bad tillage to a ridiculously and perilously low figure. The cattle also deteriorate through starvation—calves because they are deprived of their mother's milk, and mature beasts because of drought or lack of foresight. Lack of attention and indiscriminate breeding hasten the degeneration till the average Indian cattle are the worst in the world.

How to lessen the dense ignorance and carelessness that cause all this tremendous damage, and to improve Indian agriculture, leading to an early betterment of the land and the cattle is a problem that occupies constantly the minds of the best among the agricultural officers of the Empire. The problem is a difficult one, for the Indian agriculturist is a difficult person to interest in changes, and his ignorance is so intense and contented. The fact that India is a very huge and varied place, whilst the agricultural officers who have the task of its education in hand are very few and somewhat imperfectly acquainted with the vernaculars, does not lessen the difficulties. A very small percentage of those interested in agriculture can read even their own vernaculars, and of these a still smaller number are capable of really digesting and acting upon any useful information that is contained in the literature that may come into their hands. * * *

Those classes can be reached only by oral instruction given in their own languages in their own villages. The training of the right kind of farm managers and itinerant instructors, well but not too highly educated, and preferably belonging to the agricultural classes themselves, must be the most important duty of the State experts for some time to come.¹

¹ Information furnished by Charles R. Perry, former vice consul general to Calcutta.

MODERN EDUCATION IN AFRICA.

ALGERIA.

The advance of modern education in Africa follows the course of European colonization and commercial expansion. In the north, Algeria has been fully assimilated to France in this respect and forms a division, "academy," of the French system. Official statistics show that this division had in 1910 a total of 116 infant schools, of which 88 were public, comprising 24,889 pupils, and 1,443 primary schools, of which 1,346 were public, with a total of 147,100 pupils; in the public lycée for boys there were 2,882 pupils, and in the lycée for girls 262 pupils. The faculties which in 1909 were organized into a university reported for 1911 a total of 1,283 students. There were about 3,500 teachers engaged in the public primary schools, all of whom were specially trained for service in this tropical country, more than half of them being men well prepared to interest their pupils in the development of the natural resources of the country.

EGYPT.

Modern education in Egypt is the product of missionary enterprise and of the efforts of the two European powers, France and England, that have successively exercised chief influence in the Government of the Khedive. Of about 700 modern schools, more than half are maintained by the Government. They are well graded, carefully inspected, and enroll about 9,000 students, of whom over 1,000 are in the professional colleges. These numbers do not include the elementary vernacular schools (Kuttabs), which are of very ancient origin and generally connected with the mosques, but have recently been brought under Government inspection and follow a prescribed program. In 1911 the schools of this class were attended by about 15,000 children.

THE COAST REGIONS.

The western and eastern coasts of Africa are divided into what may be termed "spheres of influence," chiefly French and German. For the areas on the west coast under French control, including the Senegal, Upper Senegal and Niger, French Guinea, the Ivory Coast, and Dahomey, an inspector general of education was appointed in 1903, with headquarters at Dakar, and year by year the number of schools maintained either by public funds or under private management increases. Nearly 15,000 boys, it is estimated, are receiving instruction in French schools under this general administration.

The island of Madagascar, on the eastern coast of Africa, which has been a French colony since 1896, has a system of compulsory education; all schools, whether public or private, are under inspection and are obliged to follow Government programs, which invariably include the French language.

While the Germans have not attempted extensive educational work in Africa, the seat of government in each of their colonies is a center of educational influence and a direct incentive to progress. Missionary schools are encouraged and native interpreters and native police are employed in the Government service; these individuals, selected from the mass of rude tribal peoples, are naturally impressed with the ideas of discipline and orderly life, which they impart in turn to their own people.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

The chief theater of educational activity on this southern continent at the present time is the Union of South Africa, constituted by an act of 1909, which became effective May 31, 1910. The federation comprises the former self-governing colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony. The seat of the Government is Pretoria and the seat of the legislature is Cape Town. The executive power of the union is vested in a governor general appointed by the British Sovereign; a provincial council in each province has power to legislate by ordinance on subjects specified in the act and on such other subjects as may be delegated to it. Public affairs are administered by executive departments, including a department of education, whose chief bears the title of minister of education.

In the act of 1909 it was—

provided that "Education, other than higher education, for a period of five years and thereafter, until Parliament otherwise provides, shall be and remain under the jurisdiction of the respective provincial councils." For practical purposes it has been provisionally determined that all post-matriculation instruction shall be deemed to constitute higher education.

At present, therefore, elementary education in each of the federated States is separately administered; the department of education under the minister has general control of the University of the Cape of Good Hope, situated at Cape Town, a group of seven colleges which prepare students for university degrees, and the South African School of Mines and Technology, situated at Johannesburg.

The public schools maintained in the four States which make up the Union of South Africa are intended for the children of Europeans and their descendants, and, according to current reports, the effort to get all such children under instruction has been successful. The total

white population to be dealt with is 1,840,211, and the total school enrollment 289,668, or 15.7 per cent of the population. This ratio is surpassed by very few European countries. The attention of the authorities is at present directed to the improvement of the schools by raising the qualifications of teachers and by adapting both schools and instruction to local conditions; hence the need of distinguishing between urban and rural communities has arisen, and with that the question of the language of instruction. The current discussions of the latter throw much light on the language problem as it exists in other countries; at the present time the weight of official opinion, as well as the general preference of parents, favors the use of English as the medium of instruction, and the inclusion of Dutch as a branch to be taught where circumstances require.

The education of the native population has been left almost entirely to mission schools, which are aided, as a rule, by Government subsidies; it is now generally recognized that this part of the educational work must be brought as rapidly as possible under Government control, and the means of extending the public system in this direction is at present a prominent subject of thought and discussion in all the States.

EDUCATION COMMISSION FOR CAPE COLONY.

As a consequence of the relations brought about by the union, an education commission was appointed by the Cape Colony Government in 1910 to investigate the educational systems of all the States, in order to make recommendations with respect to the Cape system, having regard to the circumstances of South Africa as a whole. The report of this commission, which has just been published, deals minutely and comprehensively with the entire situation and brings clearly to view the special problems which it involves, problems arising from the racial differences of the white population and their relations with the natives. The situation is similar to that in the Philippine Islands, and the Government of the latter has already sought from the South African authorities information and suggestions relating to their common difficulties.

It would be impossible here to attempt any extended analysis of the report of the commission; it must suffice to refer to a few particulars drawn from an able summary of the document in the London Times:¹

RELIGION.

As regards religious instruction, the commission finds that the present system, which allows committees to give what religious instruction they like, but does not compel them to give any, results in practice in general inattention to the

¹ The Times Educational Supplement, June 4, 1912, pp. 67-68.

religious and moral elements of education and in widespread ignorance of the Scriptures, amounting at times to something like the paganization of the people, and likely if not checked to advance and increase in intensity. The importance of religious and moral instruction both in the formation of character and in the culture of the intellect is insisted on, and the commission recommends that the powers of the committees should not be curtailed, but that, subject to a conscience clause, Bible teaching should be given in all schools. * * * It also recommends that religious instruction should be inspected, but not examined; that Bible teaching should include definite instruction in Christian ethics; that committees should be free to make all necessary inquiries as to the capability of candidates to give Bible instruction; that a course in religious teaching should be part of the course for teachers, whose certificates should show whether they have taken it or not.

THE FREEDOM OF THE TEACHER.

A third general principle is the necessity of engendering habits of independent reading and thinking, as to which the commission reports that matters are by no means satisfactory, chiefly owing to the mechanical methods pursued in many schools and to a large extent forced upon them by the rigidity of the curriculum and the system of inspection. The chief remedy proposed is to give the teachers larger freedom. At present the curriculum is fixed and is fairly suitable to the European boy of moderate abilities, but not equally so to the country children, the girls, the colored, and the exceptionally capable or dull. The commission is convinced that a change imparting more elasticity to the system would be for the general good and would remove the lack of vitality and originality which now exists.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The report lays great stress on the training of teachers, and says that ideals have been pitched far too low, contrasting the training of doctors and of teachers. * * * The commission further finds that the training institutions are not enough in touch with the spirit of the country as a whole, that the training is not sufficiently liberal and fails to produce general culture, and that no attempt whatever has been made to deal with the problem of the supply of teachers with a trained eye for country life. * * * There is general agreement that a special course is required for secondary teachers and that this must be given in connection with the university colleges, the ideal being a two years' professional course following on graduation or its equivalent, and this being the standard for all secondary teachers.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SCHOOL BUILDINGS, ETC.

The report proposes that compulsion up to Standard (grade) IV should be made universal, and that school boards or the administration should be empowered to raise the standard of compulsion to the seventh standard, provided that it is not raised by more than one standard a year. As regards school buildings, it calls attention to the pitiable condition of things in country districts, instancing a school where there are from 35 to 40 children and the only school-room is the teacher's dining room, and remarks that if some few places are housed like Dives in the parable many others are like Lazarus at his gate, and that the neglect of open-air schools, which are much used in the far less suitable climates of Germany and England, is hard to justify. It suggests that schools should be free to work on Saturdays with two half holidays, if the committees so desire, and comments adversely on the prevalent custom of having one long session in the school day with short breaks, instead of two sessions

with a long break, as was contemplated in 1865. The need for medical inspection of school children appears to be generally felt, and the commission urges that the school boards should be given the necessary powers to conduct medical inspections and encouraged to use them.

FINANCE.

The report ends with a striking financial scheme. The great bulk of the evidence is against free education, and the commission approves of the payment of fees by parents who can pay them, provision being made for poor students of ability not only up to Standard IV, as now, but throughout the school course. The difficulty is with regard to the question of grants. The commission observes that the pound-for-pound principle is a survival of the old system when the Government dealt with individual schools, that its continuance maintains the inequitable principle of contributing in inverse proportion to the need of the recipient and necessitates cumbrous' adjustments and readjustments having no purpose, and that a scheme suited to the present circumstances has to be thought out and should embody four principles. It should be simple and involve the minimum of clerical work; it should facilitate the payment of teachers, so that poor districts may have good teachers; it should not involve the Government in expenditure when there is no local contribution; and it should not involve the Government in unlimited liability. * * * The commission estimates that the immediate cost of its proposals, on the basis of the latest accounts available, which are for the year ending with last June, would be £47,000, made up of £12,000 for public and mission schools, £20,000 for training institutes, £10,000 for industrial schools, and £5,000 for schools for defectives. Possible administrative economies are in the main balanced by the new appointments proposed.

THE COLORED PEOPLE.

In addition to the matters covered by the summary from which the above citations have been made, the report of the commission deals particularly with the education of the colored people, which is declared to be "very unsatisfactory." The superintendent general of education in his evidence admitted that "the colored people are not receiving their rights in the matter of education;" as a consequence of their general neglect, "a very large proportion of the youth of this race," he said, "are growing up under no restraint of discipline (for their parents are away at work all day); these neglected children lead, it is to be feared, vicious lives, and acquire habits of laziness that totally unfit them to become good servants."

The opinion is expressed by the commission that—

the evil tends to increase, for the churches are wearying of the burden of colored education, and at present they alone stand between the colored population and entire educational destitution. In the country districts this is not so serious, but in the towns there can be no doubt that our neglect is raising up crime and disease, which are bound to grow into formidable lashes for our own backs and those of our children.

It is worthy of note also that the commission insists upon religious education and manual training as essential for the development of the colored race.

CHAPTER XXV.

EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND.

CONTENTS : Australia—The systems of public education ; New South Wales ; Victoria ; Western Australia. New Zealand educational system—Educational commission.

AUSTRALIA.

The Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed at Sydney, January 1, 1901. Legislative power is vested in a Federal Parliament, consisting of the King, a Senate, and a House of Representatives, the King being represented by a Governor General. The several State parliaments retain legislative authority in all matters which are not transferred to the Federal Parliament. Education is one of the important matters reserved to the States.

The area and population of the six States comprised in the federation are as follows :

Area and population of the States.

| States. | Area
(square
miles.) | Population,
1911. | Popula-
tion per
square
mile. | Capital city. | Population
of capital
city. |
|----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|--|----------------|-----------------------------------|
| New South Wales..... | 310,372 | 1,648,448 | 5.3 | Sydney..... | 1,621,100 |
| Queensland..... | 670,500 | 605,813 | .9 | Brisbane..... | 2,143,077 |
| South Australia..... | 380,070 | 408,558 | 1.7 | Adelaide..... | 1,192,000 |
| Victoria..... | 87,884 | 1,315,551 | 15.0 | Melbourne..... | 2,591,830 |
| West Australia..... | 975,920 | 282,114 | .2 | Perth..... | 2,54,354 |
| Tasmania..... | 26,215 | 191,211 | .7 | Hobart..... | 27,719 |

¹ Estimate, in 1910.

² In 1909.

³ In 1911.

THE SYSTEMS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION.

Control of the systems.—The control of education in each of the States is vested in a minister appointed for this particular interest or combining it with some closely allied interest. To the chief officer is consigned not only the general administration of the system, but also, to a degree, its local direction. He decides as to the establishment of school districts and schools, and controls the school funds and properties. In Victoria and New South Wales appointments of teachers and inspectors emanate from a civil-service board; in the other States they are made by the minister.

Local boards of advice are constituted by election (in Queensland appointed by the governor), and their representatives carry great weight in respect to the school affairs of their several districts, but the authority remains in every case with the minister.

Sources of support.—In all the States the schools are supported by appropriations from the public treasury.

Completeness of school provision.—The classes of schools recognized in the State laws give evidence of the widely different conditions under which the schools of different districts are maintained and also the efforts to adjust the school provision to these varying conditions.

The typical school is called simply the public or State school. It must maintain a certain average enrollment and must be kept in session the full time. There are also provisional schools; that is, schools which may be kept open for the full time annually but whose average enrollment is below the standard, and half-time schools in districts where the number of children is too small to justify the expense of a full-time school. In such cases a teacher is appointed for two or more districts and holds the school in each on alternate days or for a half session each day, according to the distance to be traveled. House-to-house schools have also been recognized as a temporary expedient. The plan of conveying children at public expense from isolated districts to a central school has been recently adopted and is gradually superseding that of special and half-time schools. In Victoria this plan is extensively employed and has virtually eliminated the half-time schools. Night schools, and in some of the colonies infant schools, complete the public provision for popular education.

Compulsory attendance.—Attendance upon school is compulsory for all children of legal school age unless they are educated privately or exempt by law.

Secular character of the schools.—In Victoria and Queensland the public schools are strictly secular; in South Australia nonsectarian religious instruction is allowed; in New South Wales and West Australia provision is made for religious instruction in the schools at an hour when children may be withdrawn if their parents object to their presence.

In addition to the very complete provision for elementary education maintained by the several governments, every State in the Australian federation makes appropriations for secondary education either by a system of State scholarships, open to competition, or by grants to the individual institutions.

Technical education is also fostered in all the States, and technical schools or classes aided by public funds are found in all the chief cities.

The Australian universities have been extensively aided by legislative appropriations or by grants of land. These institutions are

authorized to confer the same degrees as the universities in England, with the exception of degrees in divinity, and women are admitted to all their privileges.

The principal facts in the current record of the public-school systems are here presented. To complete the summary, the statistics of private schools and universities are also given.

Statistics of public day schools.

| States. | Year. | Compulsory school age. | Total enrollment. | Average attendance. | | Teachers. | | Expenditures. | | Per capita of enrollment. | Per capita of population. |
|---------------------|-------|------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|-----------|--------|---------------|---------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| | | | | Number. | Per cent of enrollment. | Men. | Women. | Total. | Total. | | |
| New South Wales.... | 1910 | 6-14 | 243,839 | 157,498 | 64.59 | | 5,900 | \$5,791,725 | \$23.75 | | |
| Queensland..... | 1911 | 6-12 | 100,024 | 70,194 | 70.17 | 1,236 | 2,745 | 1,825,644 | 18.25 | 3.01 | 3.01 |
| South Australia.... | 1911 | 7-13 | 53,494 | 37,427 | 69.96 | 386 | 939 | 1,325 | 894,400 | 16.71 | 2.18 |
| Victoria..... | 1910 | 6-14 | 235,042 | 145,968 | 62.00 | | 4,957 | 3,875,086 | 29.45 | 2.94 | |
| West Australia..... | 1911 | 6-14 | 35,347 | 30,168 | 85.34 | 379 | 721 | 1,100 | 748,931 | 21.18 | 2.65 |
| Tasmania..... | 1911 | 7-13 | 28,821 | 18,130 | 62.90 | | | 406,660 | 14.10 | 2.12 | |

Statistics of private schools and of universities.

| States. | Private schools,
1910. ¹ | | Universities,
1912. | | | |
|----------------------|--|-------------|------------------------|---------|------------------|--|
| | Number. | Enrollment. | Teachers. | Number. | Students. | |
| New South Wales..... | 774 | 59,247 | 3,602 | 1 | 1,387 | |
| Queensland..... | 149 | 12,790 | 666 | 1 | (²) | |
| South Australia.... | 189 | 11,978 | | 1 | 642 | |
| Victoria..... | 641 | 49,964 | 2,067 | 1 | 1,248 | |
| West Australia..... | 119 | 8,910 | | 1 | (²) | |
| Tasmania..... | 126 | 7,462 | | 1 | 434 | |

¹ Statistics incomplete.

² Recently established.

CURRENT ACTIVITIES.

The activity with respect to education, which has been particularly marked since the formation of the Commonwealth, has been continued during the past year. In all the States, two tendencies are noticeable: First, that of careful inquiry and investigation, especially in regard to the educational provision in foreign countries; second, the tendency to increase the scope of the central authority in the several States. Within the past few years the States of New South Wales and Victoria have sent commissions of experts to inspect and report on the methods adopted in the schools of the chief countries of Europe and of America, and several of the States have appointed commissions to make exhaustive investigation of home conditions. An educational commission of the latter character was appointed

also in New Zealand in 1908, and its report has been issued during the current year. The work of these commissions has excited widespread discussion in the public press and in legislative assemblies, and consequently the people of Australia, and of New Zealand also, have been excited to a very lively interest in the measures proposed for improving and extending the means of education in their midst.

The following statements pertaining to individual States embody the results of these preliminary measures so far as they have been reported to this office.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

The success of the Labor Party in New South Wales, with the consequent formation of a labor ministry, draws special attention to the plans for education adopted under the new party. It was well known that the ministry came into office with a definite and long-considered plan respecting public education about which expert opinion had been sought. As set forth in a communication to the London Times, the chief features of this plan were as follows:

(a) A complete chain of schools leading up from the existing primary State schools either to the university or to the child's future work, and (b) control of this chain, as far as possible, by a reformed and widened university senate, working in friendly cooperation with the department of education. The first was mainly administrative work, the second needed legislation.

According to the correspondent referred to, it was expected that the whole scheme would be in working order by February, 1911, but unexpected obstacles arose, and thus far little has been accomplished, excepting with reference to secondary schools, which part of the scheme, as carried out, is described as follows:

A child leaving the primary school, usually about 13 years old, has three courses open to him or her. One ends in the university—not necessarily in the faculty of arts. One ends in the adoption of some wage-earning calling two years later. One contemplates that adoption at once. It is the State's business, according to the reformers (whose ranks extend far beyond the Labor Party), to shepherd its young people through all these stages; and this is how it is done.

The candidate for university teaching may pass through a four years' course at a State high school, or may be assisted with a bursary to take a similar course at one of the private secondary schools which has agreed to submit itself to proper inspection. Both the bursary examinations and the "leaving certificates" issued at the end of the four years are controlled by a board in the choice of which the university has the chief voice; and the certificates are accepted by the university as equivalent to matriculation. Under the university bill most of these certificate holders will pay no university fees, the State increasing its subsidy instead. This arrangement is to apply to the professional faculties as well as to that of arts.

The child who can not be spared from wage earning for more than two years after leaving the primary school is placed in the upper division of a "superior" State school, and at the close of a two years' course may gain an "interme-

diate" certificate—which the department describes as of a standard "roughly corresponding to the Oxford and Cambridge junior local examination." The subjects, however, will be very different, as these superior schools are being organized into artisan, commercial, and domestic divisions, so that pupils may receive instruction more or less adapted to their future needs. Here, as in all other cases, entrants who have obtained from their last school a certificate of "regular attendance, good conduct, and reasonable proficiency" will obtain their education free.

For the child who must begin to earn wages at once there are evening continuation schools; attendance at these is still voluntary, but the ministerial policy contemplates compulsion as soon as time can be found to pass the necessary legislation. These, too, are divided into artisan and commercial (for boys) and domestic (for girls), and provide six hours' instruction weekly; but the training is not specialized, for reasons stated thus by an officer high in the department:

As a rule apprenticeship, or the definite choice of a vocation which determines the kind of special training that the youth will need, does not take place before the age of 16; it is the intervening period between 14 and 16, with its danger of casual and variable occupation, that the evening continuation school is designed to fill—so that, when the age of definite choice arrives, it will find the youth with a groundwork on which to build his more specialized training.

The artisan schools give instruction in English, mathematics, science, and drawing and manual work; the commercial schools in English, arithmetic, geography, shorthand, business principles, and bookkeeping; the domestic schools in English, cookery, home management and hygiene, personal hygiene, care and management of sick and infants, housewifery, and needlework. Pupils must take English and at least two other subjects. Among the teachers of such subjects as business principles and manual work are men actually engaged during the day in commercial or artisan callings; and for students who have passed through the schools, and have definitely entered on their special career, trade and technical schools are being scattered through the more populous centers of the State.

Of the continuation schools there are now 38, with an enrollment of about 3,000 and an average attendance not far short of that number. A fee of 6 pence per week is charged, but remitted to all who attend regularly. While these figures probably represent the ambitious youths within reach of existing schools, they are not considered at all satisfactory; in Sydney alone more than 13,000 boys of from 14 to 17 are apprenticed to trades, and it is believed that the State contains quite 116,000 children between those ages who are getting no education whatever. Only compulsion, therefore, will make the system properly effective in turning into good citizens this untouched tenth of the population.¹

Provision has been made for the organization of day continuation classes, under the charge of a special official, who bears the title Inspector of Continuation Schools.²

The continuation classes are formed in the higher grade public schools and are intended for pupils who can continue in attendance for two years after completing the primary course of five years. In other words, the continuation classes are parallel with the sixth and

¹ The Times Educational Supplement, [London], Jan. 7, 1913.

² The incumbent of this office is Mr. S. H. Smith, who, it will be recalled, made a visit to the United States in 1910 in the interest of his department.

seventh grades of the ordinary school. They specialize in three directions, namely, commercial, technical, and domestic science, for each of which a distinctive program is arranged, adapted to the subject, and also to the conditions of New South Wales. The programs include as common subjects: English; morals and civics, comprising history and Scripture; music and social exercises; physical training and organized games. The remaining branches pertain to the respective specialties of the three divisions.

A qualifying certificate is required for admission to these classes, which may be gained by the average pupil at about 13 years of age, and he then spends two years in vocational training.

VICTORIA.

In 1910 a bill¹ was passed by the Legislature of Victoria the purpose of which was "to establish a direct path from the elementary schools to the university." This necessitated the coordination of elementary and secondary schools and of the higher technical schools with the university, and the extension of Government supervision to the entire field. Consequently provision was made in the law for a council of public education, charged with advisory functions with reference to all questions that may arise in respect to the administration and conduct of public instruction. This council consists of 20 members: Four will represent the education department; four, existing schools; three, the university; three, technical education; one, music education; and five, industrial interests. Two out of five must be interested in agriculture.

The act provides for the creation of higher elementary schools and district high schools, and as a means of extending the opportunity for education in secondary schools authorizes appropriations for 200 public scholarships, each one of which shall entitle the holder to free education at a district high school or technical school, or to an allowance of not less than £12 (\$60) a year toward the payment of fees at a secondary school, with an additional allowance for living expenses. The act also provides that—

evening continuation schools may be established by the minister in approved centers, and pupils under 17 years of age may be required to attend, unless they are receiving instruction elsewhere. A penalty is imposed where an employer exacts such service as would preclude a pupil's attendance at such continuation classes.

Compulsory education is extended to defectives, i. e., blind and deaf and dumb children. The importance of vocational education is emphasized in the act by the authority given to the central depart-

¹ For particulars respecting the education act of 1910 this office is indebted to Dr. A. C. Tutton, Melbourne, Australia.

ment to assume direction of technical institutions, including trade and preparatory schools.

From the current report of the minister of public instruction (1912) it appears that the council of public education was formed according to the provisions of the act, and has been seriously engaged during the year in examining questions of pressing moment, and particularly those pertaining to the coordination of different classes of schools. The following extract from the report presents the results of a conference between a committee of the council and representatives of the University of Melbourne and the director of agriculture respecting agricultural education:

1. That in the opinion of this conference there should only be one institution in the State dealing with education in the higher branches of agriculture.
2. That a university agricultural school be established in the vicinity of Melbourne, and that a suitable area of farm land should be attached to such school.
3. That such school and farm should be under the direction and control of the faculty of agriculture, to be reconstituted with a liberal departmental representation.
4. That the university school farm should be accessible to Melbourne and should adjoin the demonstration farm of the department of agriculture.
5. That there should be a coordination between the work of the department of agriculture and the university, particularly in giving instruction to farmers' classes.
6. That the conference is strongly of opinion that the Dookie and Longerong Agricultural Colleges and the agricultural high schools should be placed under the joint control of the departments of agriculture and education.
7. That the establishment of all agricultural high schools in the future and the selection of sites for such schools should be subject to the approval of the departments of education and agriculture.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

During the current year (1912) the education department of Western Australia issued a report upon continuation schools and the question of compulsory attendance, by Cecil Andrews, inspector general of schools, embodying the results of an extended educational investigation in foreign countries. In summing up his observations, Mr. Andrews draws comparison between conditions in his own country and those in Germany, as follows:

Our problem here differs in many ways from that which is being solved in Germany. The whole scheme of German education is based upon a caste system which has no parallel in our democratic community. In Germany the son of a workman nearly always becomes a workman, and remains in his father's class. The clever boy in the higher classes of a primary school has no chance of rising to the university or to the higher technical schools or to any of the "learned professions." If he was destined for one of these, he would necessarily have left the primary school at the age of 10, and entered upon an entirely distinct course. Those who remain in the primary school are therefore a group with comparatively uniform aims, and can be systematically

guided into certain definite channels. A German boy's future calling is generally settled at an earlier age than is the case with the Australian boy. In southern Germany a strict apprenticeship system is still in force; in northern Germany, where this is not the case, the specialized continuation school takes the boy at once and gives him a pride in his own trade or craft, and a belief in the value of good work. He realizes that he is still a learner and must give proof of his expert work before he can become a qualified tradesman. At the same time he is learning something of his duty to the State and the Empire and the relation of his craft to the whole community. From 18 to 20 he undergoes compulsory military service and learns the habit of subordination. "The habit of military subordination unquestionably renders possible and easier the industrial enterprises of Germany, which are models of smooth and quiet organization."

With us the conditions are widely different. The boy of 13 in one of the upper classes of the primary school may be destined for any profession or calling. The education that is given him must be on broad and general lines until he has decided whether he will go to a higher school or not; it can not be narrowed, as it is in Munich, so as to become merely the avenue to a trade school. Even after the boy has left he does not, as a rule, like the German boy, immediately decide, once for all, upon his particular trade. Conditions in a new and growing country are less settled, and change may be necessary. The continuation school courses that will suit our conditions best will resemble those of England and Scotland rather than those of Germany. For the first two years the work should not be too much specialized; the industrial course should be one that will give a serviceable grounding for any skilled trade that may subsequently be selected. The continuation classes will be the link between the primary school and the trade classes of the technical school, but will be a general preparation for the latter, and will not be subdivided into classes for particular trades. A course in English, practical arithmetic, mensuration, and elementary mechanics, mechanical drawing, and practical work with tools for two years will produce students well prepared to take up intelligently and efficiently the specialized work of the trades classes.

* * * * *

As far as our skilled trades are concerned, the need for organized continuation classes is probably as great as in any other country. The old system of apprenticeship, under which the master workman taught his apprentice the whole of his trade work, is practically extinct. A boy who is called an apprentice may be little more than a messenger boy or may be employed merely for odd jobs. In larger works, where there is much subdivision of labor, the boy's work may be confined to a few operations, and he may get no chance of becoming systematically acquainted with the whole of the processes that it is necessary for him to learn if he is to become a thoroughly skilled and competent workman. The trade classes in our technical schools have to some extent met the need, but they have generally attracted and indeed have been designed for the adult rather than for the boy who has just left school. Preparatory classes to lead up to the specialized work need further development, and, as far as possible, should be held in the daytime. The State has set an excellent example in the railway department. All the boys employed in the workshops at Midland Junction are required to attend classes which are held during working hours. Since my return I have met with the director of technical education, the representative of one of the leading trade unions to discuss the possibility of a similar arrangement for the boys employed in his trade. The union recognizes the necessity of systematic instruction in the principles and practice of the trade,

and the fact that this can only be obtained by continuation classes. The matter has not yet been finally settled, but the prospect of the establishment of day classes for this trade seems bright. If the principle is once recognized in this way, no doubt other trades will follow suit, and the way will thus be paved for a compulsory system in the future. In each such case it will be necessary to secure competent tradesmen as teachers of the practical work. We have succeeded in doing this for the trades classes already in existence. But if a considerable development of such courses is to take place we shall probably find that the securing of competent teachers is a matter of great difficulty. With the growth of a larger system of continuation classes, we shall need many teachers, both of industrial and of commercial subjects, who must have real practical experience of the work, and at the same time must be skilled as teachers. It will not be long before we shall be obliged to formulate some scheme of special training for them, whether in connection with the training college or the technical school or the university.

In connection with each of the trades courses to which the preparatory continuation classes will lead there should be a small committee, which should include representatives of the employers and of the workers.

Recent awards of the arbitration court have recognized the value of such classes in the training of apprentices. First, in the case of the painters' union, and next in the case of the carpenters and joiners, the court has included in its award a clause providing that, whenever facilities are provided at the technical school, apprentices shall attend classes and that the employers shall pay the class fees and generally assist the apprentices to obtain regular instruction. Evening classes are at work in the technical school in house painting, sign writing, decorating, graining, and marbling, as well as in carpentry and joinery and many other trades; the results will be more satisfactory if arrangements can be made to hold the classes in the daytime.

We have already established, in the last two years, continuation classes in Perth, Fremantle, Claremont, Midland Junction, Kalgoorlie, Boulder, Coolgardie, Day Dawn, Northam, Geraldton, Albany, Wagin, and Bunbury. These classes are free for students under 18, provided that they take a course of three subjects, of which English must be one. The greatest demand at present has been for commercial subjects—arithmetic, history and geography, bookkeeping, and shorthand. A combined course of arithmetic and mensuration and courses in elementary mathematics are also taken in several centers, and woodwork in every center except one, where there is as yet no room provided for the purpose. Dressmaking, millinery, and cookery are taken by the girls.

NEW ZEALAND EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

New Zealand comprises an area of 104,751 square miles, with a population of 1,071,428, or 10 inhabitants to a square mile. Its capital is Wellington, which has a population of 70,729.

The system of public instruction forms an executive department under the minister, but the direct management of the schools is intrusted to local boards. Elementary schools are free and secular, and attendance upon them for children not otherwise instructed is compulsory for the ages 7 to 14. Secondary education is the province chiefly of private schools. Arrangements are made, however,

by which classes of secondary grade may be formed in public schools, and for these special subsidies are granted.

In 1911 the total enrollment in the primary schools was 161,648, equivalent to 15 per cent of the population; the average attendance was 142,186, or 88 per cent of the enrollment; the teachers numbered 4,551, of whom 1,672 (36 per cent) were men. The schools were maintained at an expenditure of \$3,855,442, or \$23.85 per capita of enrollment and \$3.59 per capita of population. There were also 318 private schools of primary and secondary grade, with an attendance of 18,981 pupils and 892 teachers. The University of New Zealand is an examining and degree-conferring body; the matriculated students, who numbered 1,900 in 1911, pursue their studies in the four affiliated colleges.

EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION.

The year has been marked in New Zealand by the publication of the report of the commission appointed in 1908 to investigate the system of public instruction with special reference to means for increasing its efficiency.

In a communication accompanying a copy of the report, the chairman¹ of the commission states that—

The new government is not disposed, on account of the heavy legislative program which it has in hand at present, to ask the legislature to adopt any of the many recommendations we have made; but from the exceedingly favorable reception that has been accorded to our report from all sections of intelligent educational thought in this country, I am quite prepared to see the Government invite Parliament next year to carry out the majority of our recommendations.

Among the subjects included in the recommendations of the commission the provision of continuation schools, combined with an extension of the period of compulsory education, is emphasized. In connection with this subject that of coeducation has arisen and promises to bring on a very interesting discussion, as opinions are almost evenly divided in respect to this particular.

The continuation classes and schools that are already in existence are chiefly technical in character; with reference to them Mr. Cohen states that—

Satisfactory progress continues to be made by the "controlling authorities" and managers of technical schools and colleges throughout the Dominion in the matter of providing, improving, and extending facilities for technical instruction. The interest taken in them by the local governing bodies and by the various industrial unions has not only been encouraging but has spurred the managers to increased effort, as well as helped to make their financial burdens much lighter. During 1911 nearly £5,000 (\$25,000) in the way of voluntary

¹ Mark Cohen, Esq., editor of the Dunedin Evening Star, and distinguished for his long-continued services in the cause of popular education.

contributions was received from sympathetic public bodies, and to these donations the State gave a subsidy of £1 for £1. In all, the Government during last year found something like £11,500 (\$57,500) by way of building grants, and at the moment of writing (August, 1912) the city of Auckland is building a splendid technical college of three stories for the present, but intended to be carried to five stories, on the construction and equipment of which over £60,000 (\$300,000) will be spent, and toward this sum the trustees of the local savings bank have contributed £10,000 (\$50,000) from their accumulated profits. When the entire design is carried out it will be one of the most up-to-date and thoroughly equipped technical colleges to be found in the southern hemisphere. Similarly, at Dunedin, the southern capital of the Dominion, the citizens are pressing forward to mark in an appropriate manner the beneficent reign of King Edward the Peacemaker, to whose memory they have just dedicated a memorial building which will cost them from first to last £40,000 (\$200,000).

In the various technical classes, both day and evening, there were, at the close of 1911, 13,632 pupils, besides 1,341 in attendance at day technical schools. The last mentioned is a comparatively new departure, but it has come to stay. There are 8 such schools in operation, the principal being at Auckland (317 pupils), Wellington (268), Christchurch (349), and Dunedin (210). These day schools, which provide fairly full courses in science and technology, domestic economy, agriculture, and commercial instruction, are well attended and apparently attract a number of young people who, in the absence of such opportunities, would not continue to improve themselves once they had left the primaries.

Attention is called to the fact that, while the majority of the pupils in attendance at the technical schools pursue commercial and industrial courses, or, in the case of girls, courses in domestic subjects, interest is being excited in farming pursuits. On this subject Mr. Cohen says:

There is a satisfactory increase in the number of such classes, and the rural course includes wool sorting and wool classing, sheep shearing, dairying, veterinary science, agriculture, horticulture, beekeeping, and poultry farming. Last year no less than 17,200 pupils attended the various rural courses. An immense fillip will be given to agricultural education in the near future by the establishment of an agricultural college in the educational district of Auckland.

It is stated further that for this purpose a munificent bequest has recently been made.

CHAPTER XXVI.

EVENTS OF INTERNATIONAL INTEREST.

CONTENTS.

International foundations: Amerika-Institut; Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; Continuation committee, World Missionary Conference.

University events: Congress of the universities of the British Empire; anniversary of the University of Athens; university at Frankfort on the Main; Hamburg University; new universities in Hungary; University of Hongkong; new university for India; South African University; University of Mexico; astronomers at Brazil.

International celebrations and congresses: Musical festival at Paris; Fifteenth Modern Language Conference; congresses at London; Third International Congress of American Students; First International Congress on Eugenics; Convention of American Teachers at Berlin; Fourth International Congress for Drawing and Art Instruction; Fifth International Congress of Mathematicians; Fourth International Congress of the History of Religions; Second International Moral Education Congress; Eighth International Congress of Applied Chemistry; Fifth International Congress of Chambers of Commerce and Commercial and Industrial Associations; Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography; Tenth International Congress for the Study of the History of Art; additional international congresses; International Educational and Industrial Exhibition.

INTERNATIONAL FOUNDATIONS.

AMERIKA-INSTITUT.

The Amerika-Institut, founded at Berlin, October, 1910, under the auspices of the Prussian ministry of education, is now fully organized for effective operation.

The aim of the institute is to advance and strengthen the cultural relations between Germany and the United States by providing an organization that shall act as a medium of inquiry and exchange in matters that come within its province. These matters pertain to education and scholarship, to literature and art, to technique and social welfare, to travel and public interests, to peace and international understanding.

The services of the institute are specially important to Americans who seek to avail themselves of the facilities for study and research offered by German institutions. The number of these steadily increases and includes students in particular subjects, officials investigating administrative problems, professors on sabbatical leave, representatives of scientific organizations, learned societies, etc. An important part of the work of the foundation is the exchange of

information relating, for instance, to the equivalence of university degrees and the advantages offered at different centers of learning.

The library of the institute (now numbering about 9,200 volumes) is intended to be a representative collection of Americana, dealing with the history, life, and conditions of the United States. It is the purpose to provide a good working collection, and, by making the books more informally available, to supplement the service of other libraries in Berlin.

The whole exchange between the Smithsonian Institution in Washington and its correspondents in Germany, the transmission of official documents, and the arrangements for copyrights are undertaken by the Amerika-Institut. During the two years of its existence 1,190 books have been copyrighted through its agency. In connection with this service, encouragement is given to the translation of books of one country into the language of the other, a work which is facilitated by the location of the institute in the new building of the Royal Library in Berlin. The financial support of the institute is furnished chiefly by the banking house of Koppel, in Berlin, and Mr. James Speyer, of New York; Dr. R. B. Drechsler is the present director.

CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE.

The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace may be regarded as a nonacademic educational movement, since its purposes are to be promoted by scientific research, by propaganda, and by activities directly educational in character. The last named are comprised in the division of intercourse and education, which, in accordance with the recommendations of its acting director, Nicholas Murray Butler, LL. D., maintains a secretariat and bureau at Paris. The division is assisted also by an advisory council, composed of representative European statesmen and publicists identified with the cause of peace and international arbitration. Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, well known for his interest in the peace movement, has consented to act as president of this council, and Mr. Prudhommeaux, editor of *La Paix par le Droit*, has accepted the office of secretary general of the Paris office at a nominal salary.

According to the statement of the director:

The division of intercourse and education will undertake to give practical effect to the scientific work of the other two divisions by popularizing the results of their investigations. It will endeavor to educate public opinion to a higher sense of international rights and duties; to a realization of the inherent injustice of war in cases where arbitration or peaceful settlement is possible; and to an understanding of the causes and effects of war, upon whom its burdens fall, and what economic losses result from it to the peoples as a whole. This work of propaganda, to be effective, must be world-wide.

This division, therefore, has a threefold purpose; to diffuse information and to educate public opinion as to causes, nature, and effects of war; to cultivate friendly feelings between the inhabitants of different countries; and to maintain, promote, and assist the various existing agencies calculated to accomplish the purposes of the endowment.

Apart from the organization effected, the practical work of this division has been carried out in several directions during the current year. Under agreement with the Government of Japan, a plan of educational exchange has been effected, in accordance with which a representative scholar, scientist, or man of affairs will be sent to the United States in each alternate year at the expense of his Government. Arrangements will be made—

for the residence of this representative of Japan at six American colleges and universities for periods of approximately six weeks each. At each institution at which he is in residence the representative of Japan is to have opportunity, in addition to whatever formal and academic lectures may be arranged, to meet, in the freest possible way, teachers and students and citizens of the neighborhood, as well as to meet and address on various subjects boards of trade, chambers of commerce, literary, scientific, fraternal, and other organizations.

Dr. Inazo Nitobe, the president of the Imperial University of Tokyo, who holds also the chair on the policy of colonization at the university, was delegated as the first exchange professor to the United States and delivered courses of lectures on Japan at the six universities included in the arrangement, beginning at Columbia University in November, 1911. (See p. 43.)

With regard to the international visits of representative men, the director of the division in his report for 1911 states that:

The visit of Baron d'Estournelles de Constant to the United States during the current year was the first visit of this kind to be undertaken by the endowment; and upon Dr. Butler's recommendation, and with the approval of the executive committee, Dr. Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University, has proceeded to Japan as the first American representative of scholarship, conciliation, and good understanding.

The plan of subsidizing existing international agencies, both institutions and journals, engaged in the peace movement has been approved and has been the subject of tentative experiment during the current year.

The appropriations for the administration of the endowment made by the board of trustees for the fiscal years ending June 30, 1912, and June 30, 1913, amounted, respectively, to \$28,785 and \$51,570. For the division of intercourse and education the sum of \$100,425 was appropriated for the year ending June 30, 1912, and \$203,850 for the year ending June 30, 1913. The total appropriation for the year ending June, 1912, was \$275,985.

The endowment is administered by a board of trustees, of which the president is Hon. Elihu Root. The permanent office is located

at Washington, D. C., in charge of James Brown Scott, secretary of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace and director of the division of international law.

CONTINUATION COMMITTEE, WORLD MISSIONARY CONFERENCE.

One of the most important movements in the world is in charge of the "continuation committee" appointed at the World Conference on Foreign Missions, which met at Edinburgh, Scotland, in 1911. This committee represents all the great missionary societies of the Protestant churches, and was formed to examine the missionary fields throughout the world with a view to unifying their work for the promotion of economy and efficiency. For this purpose it was arranged that the secretary of the committee, Mr. John R. Mott, should make an extensive tour, holding conferences at appointed places with the missionaries in the field and also with native converts and thus learn from those most familiar with the conditions the actual workings and results of missionary efforts.

Mr. Mott started on his tour in October, 1912, accompanied by several coworkers, having arranged for about 20 conferences in northern Africa, Asia Minor, India, Siam, Japan, Korea, and the Pacific islands. The extensive work of instruction carried on by the missionary societies throughout the world, including provision for the medical training of native students and large hospital services, imparts to these conferences an educational character which is quite as distinctive as their moral purpose.

It is estimated that the combined expenditure in the foreign field of the different societies represented by the "continuation committee" is not less than \$28,000,000.

UNIVERSITY EVENTS.

CONGRESS OF THE UNIVERSITIES OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

By KENDRIC C. BABCOCK,
Specialist in higher education, Bureau of Education.

A notable event of the year in the field of higher education in Great Britain, an event truly international in its significance, was the Congress of Universities of the Empire, which met in London July 2-5, 1912. Preparations for this great gathering had been in progress since 1909, when the senate of the University of London voted that it was desirable to hold an imperial universities congress. While the University of London made itself responsible for the expenses of the congress, it received generous assistance from various universities

of Great Britain and Ireland, the Rhodes trustees, the Carnegie trustees, and eight of the great city companies.

The thoroughness and wisdom of the preparations are evidenced by the fact that a delegate or delegates appeared in the congress from every one of the universities of the Empire. The very statement of the geographical distribution of these 51 institutions thus represented suggests both the extent of the influence of the congress and the complexity of the problems which it met to discuss. Of the institutions, 11 are in England and Wales; 4 in Scotland; 3 in Ireland; 6 in Australia; 1 each in New Zealand, South Africa, Hong-kong, and Malta; 5 in India; and 18 in Canada—from the University of St. Francis Xavier, in Nova Scotia, on the east to the University of British Columbia on the west.

Through the courtesy of the organizing committee other persons than delegates who are interested in higher education were made associate members of the congress and included in the interesting social functions connected with the meeting. Among those thus invited to become members or guests, rather than delegates or representatives, were five from the United States, including the specialist in higher education of the Bureau of Education and the commissioner of education of the State of New York.

The dignity and impressiveness of the congress were enhanced by the remarkable series of addresses by great statesmen of the Empire, who served as chairmen of the different sessions. The Earl of Roseberry, who presided at the opening session, dwelt upon the rapid increase in the number of universities and their relation to the Empire, saying:

I sometimes wonder if universities sufficiently recognize the function that they have to discharge to the Empire in furnishing the Empire with men to carry on its work. * * * Take the case of Australia alone. I may be wrong in my figures, because I add them up on my fingers and I am not always sure that I have not left a parliament out, but I think Australia enjoys the privilege of not less than seven parliaments for a population not more than half that of Greater London. These seven parliaments, seven ministries, seven prime ministers represent a drain on the intelligence and vitality of the Australian nation that can only be adequately met if the universities of that country do their duty. * * * No one who observes the signs of the times can fail to see that it will be increasingly difficult to maintain this Empire in its entirety and cohesion without an intensity of character and devotion which it must be the task of the universities preeminently to maintain.

The Right Hon. Arthur J. Balfour, presiding at another session, referred to the difficulties arising from endeavors to adapt occidental education to oriental races:

In the West the changes of knowledge and the changes of tradition have gone on by relatively small degrees. There has been in that case mutual adjustment, and though in practice we may not be conscious of the difficulties of teaching due to the necessity of keeping up that adjustment, nobody is likely to underrate those difficulties, even in the West. The difficulties are incomparably small compared with

those which necessarily come upon us when we bring in upon a society unprepared by the long training which we have gone through generation after generation the full stress and weight of modern scientific, critical, and industrial knowledge. * * *

How, then, are you going to diminish the shock with which this sudden invasion of a wholly alien learning must meet the cultured society of the East? * * * We are forced to be catastrophic. It is impossible to graft by a gradual process on the East what we have acquired to by a gradual process, but which, having been matured up to its present stage in the West, is suddenly carried, full fledged, unchanged, and planted down as it were in these new surroundings.

Lord Curzon, of Kedleston, presiding at another session, dwelt upon the interrelation between the older universities and those of the newer colonies and dependencies, saying:

The field is too wide to be covered by any one institution or even a group of institutions. * * * We know no rivalry in this happy competition; there is no room either for superiority or inferiority; we are all contingents in the same army, fighting the same enemy, obeying the same commander, and occupying with a well-ordered strategy, with what I hope, after the meetings of a congress like this, will be a better-ordered strategy in the future, different parts of a single and almost boundless field. And, gentlemen, if these are our sentiments toward these younger universities which give a more technical training and provide a more strictly professional outlook in our own country, with feelings not less warm may we contemplate the efforts of those who * * * are engaged in creating for the first time and in maintaining the standards in the over-sea dominions of the Crown and who, for their part, when they send their representatives home on such an occasion as this, we would fain believe, regard such institutions as Oxford and Cambridge, not as venerable relics of an obsolete past, but as sanctuaries of a spirit that never dies but breathes in their bodies and burns in their veins just as in ours.

Another presiding officer was Lord Strathcona, the chancellor of the Universities of Aberdeen and McGill. Referring to the development of higher institutions in Canada, he said:

The pioneers of that Empire, we do well to remember, have often been men who owed little or nothing to universities, and in most cases the first settlers who followed them were equally devoid of the experience of academic discipline. It is all the more remarkable that among the national traditions which they continued in the lands of their exile, none has been more persistently followed or more generously endowed than that of higher education. * * * Canada began in 1788, with the establishment of King's College, Nova Scotia, and when I went to America, now 75 years ago, there were only three more—Dalhousie, McGill, and Toronto * * *. It is an inspiring story (the development of 18 universities in Canada), full of proofs of the indispensable part which the overseas universities have discharged and must continue to discharge in the material and spiritual development of our Empire.

The carefully prepared papers and discussions which followed were alike marked by earnestness, acumen, and conciseness. Among the topics discussed were: "Specialization among universities," with papers by the vice chancellor of Victoria University, Manchester, and the president of Magdalen College of the University of Oxford; "Interuniversity arrangements for postgraduate and research students," with a paper by the principal of McGill University, Montreal, and a discussion by representatives of the University of Cambridge,

and universities in Wales, Australia, Calcutta, Edinburgh, and Manitoba; "The relation of universities to technical and professional education and to education for the public service," with papers by the professor of chemistry of the University of Leeds and by the first civil service commissioner; "The problem of universities in the East in regard to the influence on character and moral ideals"; "Conditions of entrance to universities and the possibility of equivalence and mutual recognition of entrance tests to degree courses," which really involved a discussion of the whole question of standardization for the Empire; "The position of women in universities"; and "The establishment of a central bureau," with a paper by the organizing representative of the Rhodes Scholarship Trust, Dr. George R. Parkin, whose unparalleled experience with universities in all parts of the English-speaking world gave his utterance special weight.

The problems discussed in the paper of Dr. Parkin are peculiarly pertinent to the agitation for better coordination of institutions in the United States, and the final action of the congress in creating a central bureau is suggestive of the possibility of organized cooperation between existing agencies in America.

At its final session the congress resolved in favor of a congress of the universities of the Empire at intervals of five years. It advised the holding of annual meetings of the home universities and periodical meetings of the representatives of universities in the various overseas dominions, and provided that a committee of the congress be appointed to take steps for the formation in London of a bureau of information for the universities of the Empire, such committee to consist of 14 members, of whom 7 shall be nominated by the home universities committee of this congress, and 7 by the universities overseas, viz, for Canada, 2; Australia, 1; New Zealand, 1; the Cape, 1; India, 1; other parts of the Empire, 1.

The congress was preceded and followed by tours of the delegates and guests among the home universities. During the days of the congress the delegates and members were accorded notable social courtesies, including a luncheon as guests of the British Government; a reception by Prince Arthur of Connaught, in the great Hall of the University of London; and a most delightful entertainment at the Mansion House by the Lord Mayor of London and the Lady Mayoress.

ANNIVERSARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS.

The seventy-fifth anniversary of the University of Athens was celebrated Easter week, April, 1912, with exercises of a peculiarly festive character. These included a series of pan-Hellenic games, military maneuvers, and the performance of the *Oedipus Rex* of Sophocles in the Royal Theater. Delegates were present from the

principal universities of the world, and the part which western Europe has taken in the revival of Athens as a center of learning was a recurrent theme in the addresses of the occasion. Around the university are grouped a number of foreign schools of archæology, directed by eminent scholars, attracting students from all parts of Europe and America, and furnishing a basis for research in every region of the Greek world. In this way an international character has been imparted to the university.

The Congress of Orientalists which was held in connection with the university jubilee caused special emphasis to be placed upon the facilities for oriental research centering in the historic city.

UNIVERSITY AT FRANKFORT ON THE MAIN.

The proposals for the foundation of a university at Frankfort on the Main, which have been under consideration for several years, have taken definite shape in a scheme which has been submitted by the magistracy of the city to the town council. It is understood that the scheme has the support of the Prussian minister of education, and it is expected that the university will be opened in the summer term of 1914. The scheme provides for a teaching university, with the three faculties of law, philosophy (including history and literature), and medicine; the fourth faculty, theology, which is found in all the other German universities, will not be included. Several existing institutions, among them a medical school maintained in connection with the municipal hospital, will form the nucleus of the new university. The city spends at present about \$430,000 on these institutions, and this sum will be supplemented by the proceeds of several benefactions which have been left by wealthy citizens for the advancement of learning. This will be the first German university for many centuries past which owes its origin to private initiative. Although it is not a public foundation, it will be subject to State control; the ordinary professors will be appointed by the Crown, and the extraordinary professors by the minister of education.

HAMBURG UNIVERSITY.

It is officially stated that the proposed new university for Hamburg, Germany, will comprise the four faculties, philosophy, natural science, law, and a faculty of the colonial sciences; for local reasons it will contain no faculty of medicine. The city, it is understood, will appropriate a capital of 25,000,000 marks (\$5,950,000) for the maintenance of the university.

NEW UNIVERSITIES IN HUNGARY.

The year has been marked in Hungary by the creation of two new centers of higher learning—one at Pozsony (Presbourg) and the other at De Breezen. The decrees authorizing their establish-

ment provide for the full complement of faculties (that is four) at each center, but it is not expected that they will be in complete working order for some years to come.

UNIVERSITY OF HONGKONG.

The University of Hongkong (China), which owes its establishment to private initiative and contributions, is reported to be in full working order, with over 70 undergraduates in residence. Of the students enrolled, a considerable number were transferred from the college of medicine, and are doing second, third, and fourth year work. The majority of the first-year students elected to be trained in engineering science; and altogether more than half the total number of students, including those who entered from the college of medicine, are pursuing technical courses of instruction. It was the chief object of the founders of the university to train Chinese students as engineers, on account of the enormous demand that is sure to arise for experts to assist in the development of the internal resources of the country. The spirit which animates this department is indicated by a recent address delivered to the Institution of Engineers and Shipbuilders of Hongkong, by Prof. C. A. M. Smith, of the engineering department of the university. As cited in *Nature*,¹ Prof. Smith said:

In Hongkong we wish to train men who know the East to develop China's natural resources. For that development they must obtain machinery—if we do our work aright we shall secure a market for those who are at home, and provide greatly increased freightage for the shipping to this port. * * * We require at once machines for demonstration and experimental purposes. We want to equip laboratories for testing the materials of construction, such as steel, concrete, copper, etc. We want oil, gas, and steam engines, and refrigerators, as well as dynamos and all sorts of electrical apparatus. * * * We will house your gifts and keep your samples running and in good condition. We will show your present and future customers the merits of your machines, and we will advertise your goods in the center of the greatest market of the near future.

NEW UNIVERSITY FOR INDIA.

The project of a new university at Dacca, India, was referred to a special committee which entered upon its duties June 20, 1912, and submitted its report January 1, 1913. This is merely a preliminary step, as the final action must be determined by the Governments of Bengal and of India and the secretary of state in council.

SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITY.

The project of a South African university was announced at the opening session of the Union Parliament in November, 1910, by the governor general, who said:

My ministers are considering a scheme for the establishment of a national South African university, which will be submitted for your approval in due course.

¹ *Nature*, Jan. 16, 1913, pp. 560-561.

The matter is still under consideration, as difficulties have arisen with reference to the choice of a site; meanwhile, the entire subject of higher education in South Africa has been committed to a commission which, it is expected, will advise as to final action with respect to the university. The gift of half a million sterling from the estates of the late Sir Julius Wernher and Mr. Otto Beit promises a rich endowment for the new institution.

UNIVERSITY OF MEXICO.

The University of Mexico was organized by law of May 26, 1910, and includes the schools of law, medicine, engineering, and architecture, which had been previously established, and a national preparatory school of collegiate grade. To these was added a graduate school, intended for the conduct of special research in every field of science. The development of the graduate school, which bears the name La Escuela Nacional de Altos Estudios, has been pushed as rapidly as the political conditions of the country have allowed. For the current year (1912) the following courses were maintained: A course in botany, with 10 regular students, of whom 4 were women, and 5 auditors; a course in philosophical studies, with 55 regular students, of whom 1 was a woman, and 35 auditors; a course in the English language and literature, with 13 regular students, of whom 1 was a woman, and 19 auditors.

An interesting feature of the graduate school is the arrangement by which professors from other countries are invited to give courses of lectures in their respective specialties. Under this arrangement Dr. Franz Boas, of Columbia University, conducted during the year a seminar with laboratory exercises in anthropology, and Dr. James Mark Baldwin, who had been called to direct the reorganization of higher education in Mexico, conducted an important course in philosophy and the social sciences.

The director of the graduate school, Dr. D. Alfonso Pruneda, states that efforts have been made during the year to provide the material resources required in the different orders of research. Attention has been particularly directed to the collection of a library adequate to the needs of the various divisions of the school. It is also intended that this library shall exercise directive influence over all the scientific libraries of the country, with particular reference to the use of a uniform system of cataloguing. In this endeavor the cooperation of all the public libraries throughout Mexico is solicited.

The expenditure for the graduate school for the fiscal year 1911-12, as reported by the director, amounted to \$58,535, of which \$30,495 was used for salaries and administrative expenses.

ASTRONOMERS AT BRAZIL.

The Brazilian Government extended a cordial invitation to foreign astronomers to avail themselves of the opportunity for viewing the eclipse of the sun which took place October 10, 1912. The eclipse was visible throughout Brazil, and was total over a strip of territory 85 kilometers in width during almost two minutes.

The interest of the Brazilian Government in the anticipated visit of foreign observers was indicated by the petition of the minister of agriculture to the Federal Congress for an appropriation of \$23,000 to be used for the reception and entertainment of visiting astronomers. The minister also requested that their professional instruments and private effects should be granted the privilege of free customs entry, that repairs to their instruments should be made in Government workshops and that they should be furnished with railroad passes and telegraphic franks.

INTERNATIONAL CELEBRATIONS AND CONGRESSES.

MUSICAL FESTIVAL AT PARIS.

The international gatherings which characterize the holiday season in Europe began with the International Musical Festival, held at Paris from May 25 to 29. A marked feature of this festival was the participation of the school children of London and Paris in a musical competition. In accordance with previous arrangements, 500 children from the public schools of London and 300 from private schools crossed the channel on the 25th of May and were met at Boulogne by the mayor and town councilmen, and from that moment became guests of the French authorities. In the musical exercise which took place at the Theatre Chatelet, Paris, the children exceeded the anticipations of their trainers, and, to the surprise of all persons familiar with the admirable singing of the Paris school children, it was decided that the children from London should be awarded highest rank in the judgments. The result was attributed to the fine organization of the choir, which relieved the children from all nervousness and excitement. The great purpose of this visit was not to excite competition between children, but to promote good will between the two nations, and in this respect the event was an unqualified success. Everything was done to enable the child visitors to see the chief attractions of Paris, a great feature of the program being the "motor-bus rides" through the boulevards. All along the routes the people lined the footway in thousands, cheering vociferously. Rich and poor alike greeted the procession

of "busses" as they passed the Louvre, the Chatelet, the Hippodrome, etc. Parents held their little ones up to shake hands with "les petits Anglais et les petites Anglaises," and were delighted when by chance they got near enough to kiss.

The French children and the English children fraternized in the most delightful manner. The girls of the two nations became friends and parted with every show of reluctance. At the College Chaptal the pupils left in the establishment welcomed the English boys, joined them in games and in the songs of both nations. The Paris press was full of praise of the manner in which the whole arrangement was carried out, and the London papers of appreciation for the courtesies shown their young representatives.

FIFTEENTH MODERN LANGUAGE CONFERENCE.

The Modern Language Conference (Allgemeine Deutsche Neuphilologentag), which is held every two years, convened at Frankfort on the Main, May 27-31, 1912. The conference always attracts a large company of teachers from Germany, Austria, and Switzerland; and this year, as the result of a special invitation, several universities and colleges of the United States were represented.

Unusual interest attached to the meeting, on account of the increasing international relations. The papers and discussions of the conference bore chiefly upon the scope that should be given to literary and historic matter in the scheme of modern language instruction considered as a means of discipline and culture; the subject was presented almost exclusively from the standpoint of German requirements.

In this connection, it is interesting to note the issue of a circular during the year by the English board of education on the subject of modern languages in secondary schools. Aside from details of classification and staff peculiar to English schools, the circular sets forth the requirements and the difficulties in respect to modern language instruction which affect all English-speaking countries to a greater degree than those in constant contact with people speaking different languages.¹

CONGRESSES AT LONDON.

The Imperial Teachers' Congress, held in London from the 13th to the 17th of July, brought together delegates from all the Australian States, from India, the Crown colonies, and Canada, together with an immense concourse of colonial visitors not included in the number of official delegates. The subjects of the widest interest discussed

¹ Board of education. Memoranda on teaching and organization in secondary schools. Modern languages. Circular 797, 1912.

were as follows: Rural schools; the training of teachers, under which head special reference was made to the training for vocational subjects; and the methods of teaching different branches, in particular, English and English literature, history, and geography. The necessity for concerted effort on the part of English nations to preserve the purity of the English language in the increasing contact with other nationalities was emphasized, and the proposition was made for the appointment of a language commission to inquire into the subject of the teaching of the mother tongue and to report as to the best means for its preservation and improvement.

The conference called by the Association for the International Interchange of Students was held at London, June 28 and 29. Reference to its proceedings will be found elsewhere in this volume (pp. 46-47).

THIRD INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF AMERICAN STUDENTS.

In accordance with a resolution adopted by the Second International Congress of American Students at Buenos Aires, in 1911, the third international congress of this series was held at Lima, July 21-28, 1912, under the auspices of the Centro Universitario de Lima. This congress, like those held previously at Montevideo and Buenos Aires, discussed pedagogical questions and the means of promoting fraternal union between the students of the American countries.

Although devoid of official character, the congress had the firm support of the Peruvian Government, and the various universities of America were earnestly requested to participate in the proceedings by accredited delegates.

In response to the invitation the leading universities of the United States expressed great interest in the purposes of the congress, but very few were able to comply with the request for representation; so that the participants were almost entirely from the Latin American States. It is evident, however, that these congresses offer opportunity for strengthening the ties between the universities of North and South America, such as exist already between the latter and the universities of France.

FIRST INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON EUGENICS.

The first international congress on eugenics convened in London, July 24-30, 1912, upon the invitation of the Eugenics Education Society, England. Above 800 delegates were present representing many different countries. Among the eminent men participating were the Right Hon. Arthur J. Balfour, of the British Association; Prof. A. Pinard, of the French Academy of Medicine; Prof. Tedeschi, of the University of Padua; Gen. von Bardeleben, president of the Verein "Herold," Berlin; and Dr. Fred. L. Hoffman, statistician of

the Prudential Insurance Co., United States. The proceedings of the congress have been published by the English society in an unbound volume. The proposition for a permanent executive committee to be located at London was adopted by the congress, and the committee was authorized to proceed with preparations for the next congress to meet at the expiration of three years (1915) at either Paris or San Francisco. The permanent office of the English society is 6 York Building, Adelphi, London, W. C.; the secretary is Mrs. Gotto.

CONVENTION OF AMERICAN TEACHERS AT BERLIN.

The Convention of American Teachers held at Berlin in August, under the auspices of the National German-American Teachers' Association, afforded to the large company of American teachers participating opportunity for hearing the principles of their profession discussed by eminent exponents of educational philosophy. Among those whose services were freely offered were Prof. W. Rein (Jena), Prof. Hugo Muensterberg (Berlin), Prof. v. Schulze-Gaevernitz (Freiburg), Dr. G. Kerschensteiner (Munich), and Dr. Eugen Kuehnemann (Breslau). At the close of the congress the visiting teachers had the choice of several delightful itineraries. (See also pp. 45-46.)

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS FOR DRAWING AND ART INSTRUCTION.

The Fourth International Congress for Drawing and Art Instruction held at Dresden, August 12-18, 1912, drew together about 2,200 delegates, many of them from remote parts of the world.

The chief topics discussed at the congress were: The psychological principles of drawing; training of teachers of drawing; artistic penmanship; value of museums in popular education; drawing in the secondary schools; commercial draftsmanship.

At the exposition held coincidentally with the congress, the exhibit of art work from schools of the United States received much attention. The specimens of decorative drawing and applied design were specially commended by foreign observers.

The official delegates from the United States to the congress were: Mr. John S. Ankeney, director art department, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.; Mr. Ernest A. Batchelder, director School of Design, Pasadena, Cal.; and Mr. James Frederick Hopkins, director schools of art and design, Maryland Institute, Baltimore, Md.

FIFTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MATHEMATICIANS.

The Fifth International Congress of Mathematicians, held at Cambridge, August 21-28, 1912, was marked by the consideration of the work of the International Commission on Mathematical Instruction,

which occupied three sessions of the section to which this subject was assigned.

A report of the proceedings of this section emphasizes the following points: The presentation of 150 printed reports showing the status of mathematics, from the kindergarten through the university, in most of the leading countries of the world, and affording teachers of mathematics the means of comparing their work with the best in every country; plan suggested for summarizing the main results of the work of the commission in a form available for teachers; comparison of America with other countries in respect to mathematical teaching; report on the teaching of mathematics from 1900 to 1912.¹

The congress adopted the following resolution, which was transmitted from the international commission:

Resolved, That the congress expresses its appreciation of the support given to its commission on the teaching of mathematics by various governments, institutions, and individuals;

That the central committee composed of F. Klein (Gottingen), Sir G. Greenhill (London), and H. Fehr (Geneva) be continued in power and that, at its request, David Eugene Smith (New York) be added to its number;

That the delegates be requested to continue their good offices in securing the cooperation of their respective Governments, and in carrying on the work;

And that the commission be requested to make such further report at the sixth international congress, and to hold such conferences in the meantime as the circumstances warrant.

The congress joined heartily in a resolution of thanks for the publication of the bibliography on mathematical teaching, which was assumed by the Bureau of Education at Washington.²

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF THE HISTORY OF RELIGIONS.

The Fourth International Congress of the History of Religions was held at Leiden, the Netherlands, September 9–13, 1912. As in previous congresses of this series, papers and discussion were strictly limited to historic research, all questions of faith and dogma being excluded. Many countries were represented at the congress by official delegates, among them the United States, whose representatives were as follows: T. C. Hall, D. D., of Union Theological Seminary; B. W. Bacon, D. D., LL. D., of Yale University; and Morris Jastrow, jr., Ph. D., of the University of Pennsylvania. Many learned societies and universities were also represented by delegates. In an account of the congress, Dr. Jastrow notes that:

Some 70 papers were presented, embracing the entire range of the history of religions—primitive cults, the religions of China and Japan, the older Semitic religions, Islamism, the religions of India and Persia, of the Greeks and Romans, of the Celts and Teutons, and finally Christianity.³

¹ Smith, David Eugene. The international commission on the teaching of mathematics. *Educational Review*, January, 1913, pp. 1–7.

² Smith, David Eugene, and Goldziher, Charles. *Bibliography of the teaching of mathematics, 1900–1912*. *Bulletin*, 1912, No. 29.

³ The Nation, Oct. 3, 1912, pp. 304–306.

With regard to the spirit that prevailed throughout the sessions, Dr. Jastrow says:

The scientific meetings passed off without a jarring note. Despite the delicacy of some of the subjects presented, the discussions were entirely courteous, and the proof was once more furnished that it is possible to hold a congress of this kind without introducing "questions of religious belief," which the laws of the congress distinctly exclude from consideration.¹

SECOND INTERNATIONAL MORAL EDUCATION CONGRESS.

The First International Moral Education Congress was held at the University of London in September, 1908. The importance of the subject and the service which the congress rendered in giving definite expression to prevailing opinions and practices in respect to its treatment as a distinct branch of formal instruction excited wide interest in the call for the second congress of the series, to meet at The Hague, August 22-27, 1912. The congress convened under the auspices of the Queen of the Netherlands and with the active cooperation of representative men of many nations. The program was organized in four divisions, dealing, respectively, with the consideration of moral education from different standpoints, religious, ethical, etc.; with physical training as a means of character building, with the moral training of adolescents—i. e., in schools beyond the primary grade; in training colleges for teachers and military men, in family life and in society at large; and finally with the moral training of abnormals, which was the topic of the fourth section.

Notwithstanding the fact that the congress was well organized, and that abstracts of the papers to be submitted were in print before its assembly, the number of papers precluded extensive discussions of any one of the topics. The report of the proceedings, omitting the papers by the American members, which were published separately at the expense of the committee for the United States, comprises a quarto volume of 1,072 pages.

Apart from the publication of the report, which is a mine of information relative to the specialties considered, and the inspiring influence of the congress upon the participants, its chief outcome is the impressive evidence it offers that the movement for a new emphasis upon moral education is world-wide in extent and profoundly significant. Provision was made for future action by the continuance of the international committee, with instructions to prepare for the third congress of this series. The office of the executive of this committee is at London; J. W. Adamson, chairman; Fred Charles, honorary secretary.

¹ The Nation, Oct. 3, 1912, pp. 304-306.

EIGHTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF APPLIED CHEMISTRY.

The Eighth International Congress of Applied Chemistry was held at Columbia University, New York City, September 6-13, 1912. The officers of the congress were: Dr. Edward W. Morley, of Hartford, Conn., honorary president; Dr. William Henry Nichols, of New York, president; and Bernhard C. Hesse, of New York, secretary. The arrangements for the congress were elaborated by an able executive committee, and the occasion brought together a distinguished company of specialists representing the principal countries and the leading industries of the world.

One of the most interesting papers presented before the congress was by Dr. Hugo Schweitzer, vice president of the Farbenfabriken Co., of Elberfeld, who reviewed the remarkable achievements of chemistry in the nineteenth century, which have revolutionized many industries and greatly increased the demand for men specially trained in the science.

The next meeting of the congress will be held at St. Petersburg in 1915. The exact date has not yet been determined.

FIFTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL ASSOCIATIONS.

The Fifth International Congress of Chambers of Commerce and Commercial and Industrial Associations, which was held at Boston, September 24-26, 1912, although not an educational congress, had important bearings upon education. In particular it has given stimulus to current efforts for promoting the higher orders of commercial education on the part of several of the leading universities of the United States. Some 50 different countries were represented by the 770 delegates, of whom 535 were from foreign countries.

The topics discussed by the congress included the establishment of an international court of arbitral justice and the unification of legislation relating to checks, both of which are of interest to schools of commerce and law.

FIFTEENTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF HYGIENE AND DEMOGRAPHY.

The Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography was held at Washington, September 23-28, 1912, and was distinguished by its large membership, reaching nearly 4,000, by the number of delegates eminent in the sciences to which it related, and by the great public interest which it excited.

Prominence was given in the proceedings to the section of public health and hygiene, and both in this section and in the exhibit which

accompanied the congress emphasis was placed upon the inseparable relation between the broad field of municipal hygiene and sanitation and the service of school hygiene and medical inspection.¹

TENTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS FOR THE STUDY OF THE HISTORY OF ART.

This congress was held at Rome, October 16–21, 1912.

The United States was officially represented by Mr. Ralph R. Lati-
mer, formerly vice principal of the Maryland Institute Schools of
Art and Design, Baltimore, Md. From a report presented by the
delegate the following particulars are derived:

The congress was held in the old Corsini Palace, near the Tiber, on
the Vatican side of the river. This fine old palace, built by a nephew
of Pope Sixtus IV, has been purchased by the Italian Government to
become the site of the Accademia dei Lincei, an institution for the
promotion of education of all sorts.

The congress did not in any way deal with the practical teaching of
drawing or painting, but was concerned with the study of existing
works of art, which show the growth and influence of a sense of
beauty in different communities.

The sessions were occupied by papers and discussions and were
interspersed with elaborate entertainments for the delegates, who
numbered 600, chiefly from Italy and the neighboring countries. They
had unusual opportunity for viewing many treasures of art
seldom open to visitors, among them the Villa Albani, noted for its
beautiful grounds and pavilions full of interesting statues, among
them the lotus-crowned Antinno.

At the final session it was announced that the next congress would
probably be held at Paris.

ADDITIONAL INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES.

The dates and places of assembly of additional international con-
gresses of which notice was received at the Bureau of Education were
as follows:

The Eighteenth International Congress of Americanists was held
at London, May 27–June 1, 1912. The object of the congress is to
promote scientific inquiry into the history of both Americas and their
inhabitants.

The Second International Congress on Home Protection was held
at Stuttgart, June 12–15, 1912.

Third International Congress for the Deaf and Dumb, Paris, Au-
gust, 1912.

¹ Dresslar, F. B. The Fifteenth International Congress on Hygiene and Demography. Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1913, No. 18.

Second International Home Work Congress, Zurich, September 8-9, 1912.

Fourteenth International Congress of Prehistoric Anthropology and Archæology, Geneva, Switzerland, September 9-15, 1912. Official delegates from the United States were Dr. Charles Peabody, director of European archæology, Peabody Museum, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.; Dr. George Grant MacCurdy, assistant professor of archæology, Yale University; Dr. Ales Hrdlicka, National Museum, Washington, D. C.

Sixth International Gynecological Congress, Berlin, September 10-12, 1912.

Congress of International Association for the Study of Infantile Hygiene and Pathology, Paris, October 7, 1912.

First International Congress on Comparative Pathology, Paris, October 17-23, 1912.

Fourth International Congress on Physical Education, Rome, Italy, October 24-27, 1912.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL EXHIBITION.

An International Educational and Industrial Exhibition pertaining to the organization and equipment of schools was held at St. Petersburg from April 15 to July 30, 1912, under the direction of the Imperial Russian Technical Society.

The matter of the exhibit was classified as follows: School architecture; school furnishing and hygiene; educational appliances and illustrative material; equipment of laboratories, workshops, etc.; gymnastic apparatus and objects used in school sports; equipment of different classes of technical schools.

Arrangements were made for lectures pertaining to the collections and their use for demonstration.

INDEX.

A.

- Abbott, F. H., on Indian education, 420-428.
Academic anniversaries, 35-36.
Academic celebrations, 32-36.
Academies, Roman Catholic, 231-232, 239-241.
Administration, school, developments, 126-129.
Africa, modern education, 600-604.
African Methodist Episcopal Church, money for negro schools, 254.
Agricultural clubs, boys and girls, 197-202.
Agricultural colleges, extension service, 266; types of service rendered, 264.
Agricultural education, Asiatic Turkey, 574; Brazil, 478-479; Canada, 464-465; general survey, 263-280; Ireland, 508-509; legislation, 276-277; list of works, 210-212; Mexico, 472; New Zealand, 615; Porto Rico, 447-449; Victoria, Australia, 611.
Agricultural extension work, 266-267.
Agricultural fairs, effect on education, 274-275.
Agricultural press, influence, 276.
Agricultural schools and the industries, 77-80.
Agriculture, demonstration work in Southern States, benefactions, 40; extension teaching, Federal aid, 282; graduate school, Ohio State University, 264.
Alabama, educational legislation, 63; progress of rural schools, 212-213.
Alabama, University of, library economy, instruction, 383; new president, 34.
Alaska, education, 407-420.
Albion College, Mich., benefactions, 40; library economy, instruction, 383.
Alderman, L. R., on home industrial work, 204.
Alfred University, N. Y., library economy, instruction, 383.
Algeria, education, 600.
Allegheny College, Pa., benefactions, 40.
Allen, W. H., on educational needs of public schools, 17.
American Association for Labor Legislation, educational work, 303-304.
American Association for the Advancement of Science, and conservation of human life, 304.
American Association for the Conservation of Vision, work, 334.
American Association of Medical Milk Commissions, work, 354.
American Civic Association, health work, 304-305.
American College for Girls, Constantinople, work, 572.
American Federation for Sex Hygiene, educational work, 337-339.
American Interchurch College for Religious and Social Workers, work, 107.
American Library Association, meeting, 403-405.
American Library Institute, meetings, 404.
American Medical Association for Public Health Education among Women and its Affiliated Organizations, work, 310-314.
American Missionary Association, aid for negro schools, 254.
American Public Health Association, educational work, 302-303.
American Red Cross, work, 309-310.
American Samoa, education, 455-456.
American Society for the Study of Alcohol and other Narcotics, work, 308.
American teachers, convention, Berlin, proceedings, 630.
American Vigilance Association, work, 343.
Amerika-Institut, organization and aim, 617-618.
Amherst College, inauguration of Alexander Meiklejohn as president, 33-34.
Andrews, Cecil, on education in Western Australia, 611-613.
Anniversaries, academic, 35-36; colleges and universities, 623-624.
Anti-Cigarette League of America (Eastern Division), educational work, 309.
Anti-Tuberculosis Committee of One Hundred, Winston-Salem, N. C., work, 328-329.
Antituberculosis leagues, etc., work, 325-333.
Arabic, instruction, Italy, 563-564.
Argentina, education, 475-477.
Arithmetic, textbooks, criticisms, 8; written tests, 7-8.
Arizona, educational legislation, 49, 54, 57, 61, 64-66, 70, 73, 75, 78, 80-81, 276.
Arizona, University of, library economy, instruction, 383; scholarships, 80.
Armenians, education, 573-574.
Art, education, international congress, 630; history, international congress, 634.
Asia, spread of modern influences, 589.
Asiatic Turkey, education, 572-575.
Association for the International Exchange of Students, meeting, 46-47.
Astronomers, at Brazil, 627.
Athens, University of, seventy-fifth anniversary, 623-624.
Athletics, college, criticism, 47-48; high school, criticism, 5; Philippine public schools, 439-440.
Atkinson Academy, Atkinson, N. H., one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary, 36.
Atlanta, Ga., teachers' salaries, 29.

- Atlanta Chamber of Commerce, health activities, 324.
- Attendance, State school systems, xv, 13.
- Australia, education, 605-613.
- Average daily attendance. *See* Attendance.
- Ayres, L. P., on the eighth-grade arithmetic textbooks, 8.
- B.**
- Babcock, K. C., Higher education, 83-124; on Congress of the Universities of the British Empire, 620-623.
- Babies Milk Dispensary, of Buffalo, work, 355.
- Bainter, E. M., president of University of Porto Rico, 35.
- Baker, J. H., on a national university, 38.
- Balfour, A. J., on endeavors to adapt occidental education to oriental races, 621-622.
- Balkan States, education, 575-577.
- Baltimore, Md., investigation of school system, 138-139.
- Barnes, Earl, on Montessori movement, 27-28.
- Barrows, Alice P., on vocational guidance, 25-26.
- Bates, L. W., on mercurial poisoning in the industries of New York, 306-307.
- Bavaria, training of teachers, 557.
- Belgium, education, 516-519.
- Beloit College, Wis., benefactions, 39-40; library economy, instruction, 383.
- Benefactions, colleges and universities, 39-42; private, 39-42.
- Bibliography, rural education, 210-211.
- Binet-Simon tests, exceptional children, 259.
- Birney, Mrs. T. W., and National Congress of Mothers, 359.
- Blair, F. G., on condition of public schools, 2-3.
- Blaisdell, J. A., president of Pomona College, 35.
- Blind, schools, legislation, 81; Roman Catholic, 232-233.
- Blindness, societies for the prevention, 334-336.
- Bliss, D. C., on sex instruction in city schools, 167-168.
- Bloomfield, N. J., differentiation in grammar-school courses, 143.
- Boards of control. *See* Central boards of control.
- Boards of education. *See* County boards of education; State boards of education.
- Boards of health, educational campaigns, 314-315.
- Bolivia, education, 479.
- Bonds, school, legislation, 61-63.
- Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis, work, 325-326.
- Boston Chamber of Commerce, work in prevention of disease, 323-324.
- Boston Home and School Association, health teaching work, 349.
- Boyd, D. R., president of University of New Mexico, 35.
- Boykin, J. C., Educational legislation in 1912, 49-82.
- Brazil, education, 477-479.
- British Columbia, manual training schools, 466-467.
- Brooklyn, N. Y., anniversary of Erasmus Hall High School, 36.
- Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, course in eugenics for teachers, 357.
- Brooks, S. D., inauguration as president of the University of Oklahoma, 34.
- Brown University, postgraduate courses, 81.
- Brumbaugh, M. G., on "quiet zones" around schools, 169-170.
- Bryant, L. S., on school lunches, 166.
- Buell, Jennie, on the educational value of the grange, 273-274.
- Buffalo, N. Y., establishment of kindergartens, 149; differentiation in grammar-school courses, 143.
- Buildings, library, notable structures completed, 380.
- Buildings, school, legislation, 63, 451-452; wider use, 63.
- Bulgaria, education, 576.
- Bureau of Education. *See* United States Bureau of Education.
- Butler, N. M., on board of education of New York City, 127; on school of journalism, 116.
- C.**
- Caldwell College, Ky., benefaction, 40.
- California, junior college work, high schools, 101.
- California, University of, benefactions, 40-41.
- California Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, educational work, 329-331.
- California Social Hygiene Society, work, 339-340.
- Canada, educational activities, 459-469; higher education, development, 622.
- Canal Zone, education, 454.
- Canning clubs, girls, work, 201.
- Cape Colony, education commission, 602-604.
- Carnegie, Andrew, gifts to libraries, 379.
- Carnegie Corporation, gifts to libraries, 379.
- Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, work, 618-620.
- Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and educational problems, 17-18; expenditures, 39.
- Caroline Rest and School for Mothers, educational influence, 317.
- Carpenter, F. P., gift of public library to Manchester, N. H., 379.
- Carson College for Orphan Girls, benefaction, 42.
- Cassidy, M. A., on moral education, 144.
- Catholic Educational Association, organization and influence, 236-237.
- Catholic University of America, benefactions, 41.
- Celebrations, academic, 32-36.
- Central America, education, 472-474.
- Central boards of control, State institutions, 88-97.
- Certificates, teachers, legislation, 64; negro schools, 253.
- Charities Organization for School of Philanthropy, benefactions, 42.
- Charleston, S. C., city schools, simplification of course of study, 140.
- Chautauquas, and agricultural education, 275-276.
- Chemistry, applied, international congress, 638.
- Chicago, Ill., junior college work, high schools, 101.
- Chicago School Extension Committee, health teaching work, 349-350.
- Chicago Society of Social Hygiene, work, 340-341.
- Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, work, 326-327.
- Chicago University, benefaction, 41.
- Child labor, legislation, 70-71, 569.
- Children, exceptional, discussion, 257-262.
- Children, welfare work, 81, 102, 472, 491-492, 505, 517-518. *See also* Health-teaching agencies.

- Chile, education, 480.
 China, higher education, 625.
 Chinese students, and the revolution, 48.
 Cincinnati, Ohio, teachers' salaries, 29.
 Cincinnati Anti-Tuberculosis League, work, 325.
 Citizenship, instruction, American schools, 23; Germany, 554-556.
 City school systems, general survey, 125-175; reorganized, 129-132. *See also* Rural schools.
 City superintendents, notable changes during 1911-12, 138; salaries and tenure of office, 136-138.
 Claxton, P. P., introduction to annual report, xv-xxvi.
 Cleveland, Ohio, school gardens, city school systems, 172.
 Cleveland Health League, educational work, 331.
 Coe College, Iowa, benefactions, 40.
 Cohoes, N. Y., committee to prevent tuberculosis, 331-332.
 College entrance examinations, modern tendency regarding, 12.
 College fraternities, discussion, 158-159.
 College presidents, inauguration, 32.
 Colleges, recently created, 110-114; standard and junior, 97-102.
 Colleges and universities, anniversaries, 35-36; appropriations, State, 80-81; benefactions, 39-42; competition and cooperation, 104-107; consolidation, 102-104; instruction in library work, 380-384; résumé of statistics, xvi-xvii; Roman Catholic, 231-232, 239-241; standardization, 97-102; training teachers for elementary schools, 122-123; Turkey, 570-572. *See also* Higher education. *See also under name of institution.*
 Colleges and universities, State central boards of control, 88-97; correlation, 84-88.
 Colorado, progress of rural schools, 213.
 Colorado College, benefaction, 41.
 Colored Methodist Episcopal Church, funds for negro schools, 254.
 Columbia University, benefactions, 41-42, 379; school of journalism, 115, 117, 119.
 Columbus, Ohio, course of study, junior high school, 156.
 Commercial and industrial associations, international congress, 633.
 Commercial schools, Philippine Islands, 438-439.
 Compulsory attendance, legislation, 68-69.
 Concord, N. H., reorganization of school system, 131-132.
 Condon, R. J., on standards and programs, 18.
 Congress of the Universities of the British Empire, 620-623.
 Congresses, educational, review of proceedings, 45-46, 627-635.
 Connecticut, progress of rural schools, 213; vocational education, legislation, 284-285.
 Connecticut Society of Social Hygiene, work, 343.
 Consolidation of schools, legislation, 71-73; list of books, 211. *See also* Transportation of children to school.
 Constantinople, schools and colleges, 570-575.
 Continuation schools, Germany, 548-554; need in France, 526-527; New South Wales, 609; New Zealand, 614-615; Saxony, 543-544; Scotland, 503-505; Switzerland, 537-538.
 Cooking, instruction, Porto Rico, 450.
 Cooperation among farmers, 272.
 Cooperative courses, city school systems, 146.
 Corn clubs, establishment and work, 197-202.
 Cornell University, library economy, instruction, 383.
 Correlation of universities and theological schools, 107-110.
 Cosmopolitan clubs, movement in Germany, 46.
 Costa Rica, education, 472-473.
 Cottingham, W. W., tenure of office, 138.
 Council of Jewish Women, health-teaching work, 345.
 Country-life commissions, 76.
 County boards of education, legislation, 56-58.
 County superintendents, legislation, 56-58; salaries, New Jersey, 56.
 Courses of study, agriculture, 271; city school systems, 138-145; eugenics, 357; French secondary schools, 530-532; high schools, 156; sexual hygiene, 344; teachers, Bavaria and Prussia, 557; time schedules, elementary grades, 145; vocational schools, Germany, 549-553.
 Covington, Ky., reorganization of school board, 58.
 Craighead, E. B., president of University of Montana, 35.
 Crane Technical High School, Chicago, junior-college work, 101.
 Crookston, Minn., differentiation in grammar-school courses, 143.
 "Cultural" and "practical" subjects, 10.
 Curriculum, criticisms, the three R's argument, 7-8; rigidity, 9. *See also* Courses of study.
 Curzon, Lord, on interrelation between the older universities and those of the newer colonies and dependencies (British Empire), 622.

D.

- Davidson College, new president, 35.
 Davis, C. O., on reorganizing the elementary and high school, 18-19.
 Davis, Jackson, and rural schools for negroes, 248.
 Deaf-mutes, schools, legislation, 81; Roman Catholic, 233.
 Defective classes, schools, legislation, 81.
 Degrees, colleges and universities, xvi.
 Delinquents, schools, legislation, 81.
 Democracy and the public school, 15.
 Demonstration schools, rural, 191.
 Denmark, education, 511-514.
 Denny, G. H., president of University of Alabama, 34.
 Denominational boards, negro, 250-251.
 Denominational colleges, growth, 106-107.
 Dental hygiene, societies, 336-337.
 Dental schools, legislation, 81.
 Denver, Colo., teachers' salaries, 29.
 Departmental teaching, grammar grades, 141-142.
 De Pauw University, new president, 35.
 Dependent peoples, United States, reports on educational progress, 407-458.
 Dependents and delinquents, legislation, 81.
 Detroit Society for Sex Hygiene, work, 343-344.
 Dexter, E. G., on education in Porto Rico, 444-453.
 Differentiation in grammar-school courses, 142.
 Divinity schools. *See* Theological schools.
 Donlon, A. J., president of Georgetown University, 34.

INDEX.

- Drawing, international congress, 630.
 Dresslar, F. B., Typical health-teaching agencies of the United States, 299-358.
 Dual system of control, industrial training, 147.
 Duniway, C. A., president of University of Wyoming, 35.
- E.**
- East St. Louis Dental Society, work, 337.
 Education, changing purpose, 3-4.
 Efficiency, commissions, 16.
 Egypt, education, 600.
 Elective studies, college, 33.
 Elementary education, length of time devoted, 6.
 Elementary schools, course in European history, 143; England and Wales, 487-500; problems, 4; reorganization, 18-19; seven years' course of study, 141; training of teachers for, 119-124.
 Elson, W. H., on parent-teacher associations, 372.
 Emerson, H. P., on kindergarten movement, 149.
 Emigrants, education, Italy, 561-563.
 Endowments, estimates for higher institutions, 40.
 Engineering, education, China, 625; students, Montana, 85.
 England and Wales, function of board of education, 492; public elementary schools, general survey and statistics, 487-500.
 Enrollment, public schools, Porto Rico, 452; South American Republics, 474; Stateschoolsystems, xv.
 Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary, 36.
 Ethical and civic training, Denmark, 513-514.
 Eugenics, congress, 629-630; course for teachers, 357.
 Eugenics, School of, Boston, instruction in sex hygiene, 341-342.
 Examinations and home work, 12-13; old sets of questions, Springfield (Mass.) schools, 7-8; teachers, legislation, 64.
 Exceptional children, discussion, 257-262.
 Exchange professors, existing foundations, 43.
- F.**
- Fairchild, E. T., president of New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, 35.
 Fairs, agricultural. *See* Agricultural fairs.
 Farm demonstration work, 76-77, 299-250.
 Farm schools, gaining in popularity, 271-272.
 Farmers, cooperation among, 272.
 Farmers' institutes, and extension work, 275.
 Farms, experimental, 76.
 Federal aid, industrial education, 148; vocational education, 282.
 Finance, school, legislation, 59-60.
 Fitchburg, Mass., vocational education, 22.
 Florida, educational legislation, 62.
 Foreigners, library service, 397-403.
 France, education, 521-535.
 Frankfort on the Main, proposals for foundation of a university, 624.
 Fraternities, high-school, problems, 156-159; forbidden in State institutions, Mississippi, 80.
 Fresno, Cal., junior college work, high schools, 101.
 Funds, school, legislation, 59-60.
- G.**
- Gardens, school, city school systems, 170-172.
 Gary, Ind., reorganization of school system, 130.
 General Education Board, expenditures, 39-40.
- General Federation of Women's Clubs, and vocational education, 289.
 George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., benefactions, 39; organization, 113.
 Georgetown University, new president, 34.
 Georgia, agricultural schools, curriculum, 271; educational legislation, 52-53, 57, 59, 62; progress of rural schools, 213-214.
 Germany, cosmopolitan club movement, 46; education, 539-558; lecture courses in journalism, 119.
 Gifts and bequests, American libraries, 379.
 Girls' canning clubs, work, 201; education, Asiatic Turkey, 573; secondary education, France, 532-533.
 Good roads, development, 361.
 Grades, grammar, departmental teaching, 141-142; seven-year, 141.
 Graduates, high schools, xvi; normal schools, xvii.
 Grammar schools, differentiation in courses of study, 142-143.
 Grand Rapids, Mich., open-air schools, 164-165.
 Grange, The, education a factor, 273-274.
 Great Britain and Ireland, education, 487-510.
 Greece, education, 567-569.
 Greenwood, J. M., on Dr. Shepard's services to National Education Association, 377; on seven-years' course of study, 141; on vacation schools, 159-160.
 Gregory, B. C., on schools of the present and past, 8.
 Gregory, C. R., lecture tour in United States and Canada, 44.
 Gross, G. R., president of De Pauw University, 35.
 Groszmann, M. P. E., Progress of the movement for the benefit of the exceptional child, in the year 1912, 257-262.
 Guam, education, statistics, 456-458.
- H.**
- Hamburg, Germany, proposed new university, 24.
 Hamilton, Ohio, teachers' salaries, 29.
 Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y., library instruction, 383.
 Hamilton College, Ohio, benefaction, 41.
 Hamline University, new president, 35.
 Hammond, Ind., reorganization of school system, 131.
 Hanus, P. H., inquiry into New York City school system, 19-21, 134-136.
 Harvard University, examinations, 12; benefactions, 41, 79.
 Hawaii, education, 442-444.
 Hazleton, Pa., open-air schools, 164.
 Health, State boards, educational campaigns, 314-315.
 Health Education League, Boston, work, 357.
 Health-teaching agencies, typical, 299-358.
 Helena, Mont., city schools, simplification of course of study, 139.
 "Henrico plan," rural schools for negroes, 248-249.
 Hibben, J. G., on the doctrine of prescribed and elective college studies, 33; inauguration as president of Princeton University, 32-33.
 High cost of living, effect on teachers, 29-31.
 "High school," definition of term, West Virginia legislature, 224.
 High-school fraternities. *See* Fraternities, high-school.

- High schools, athletics, criticism, 5; anniversaries, 36; city school systems, review, 152-159; Denmark, ethical and civic education, 513-514; Chicago, junior college work, 101; increase in attendance xvi; Latin, study, 9; legislation, 74-75; Porto Rico, statistics, 446-447; reorganization, 18-19; Roman Catholic, 233-236; teaching agriculture, 267-272; uniform standards, 4-5.
- High schools, public and private, number, xvi.
- Higher education, Balkan States, 576; Canada, 468-469, 622; France, statistics, 533-535; legislation, 80-81; negroes, 254; progress, 83-124; Russia, statistics, 585-586. *See also* Colleges and universities; Universities.
- Hightower, G. R., president of Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College, 35.
- Hill, J. J., gift of public library to St. Paul, Minn., 379.
- History, European, elementary schools, 143.
- Holmes, H. W., on Montessori movement, 26.
- Holy Cross College, Mass., benefaction, 41.
- Home and School League of Philadelphia, health-teaching work, 348-349.
- Home and school leagues, health-teaching activities, 348-350.
- Home industrial work. *See* Industrial work, home.
- Home work, and examinations, 12-13.
- Hongkong, University of, work, 625.
- Hood, W. R., City school systems, 1911-12, 125-175.
- Hookworm disease, eradication, 355-356.
- Household industries, instruction, Philippine Islands, 437-438; Porto Rico, 450.
- Howard University, new president, 34.
- Hungary, creation of two new universities, 624.
- Hyatt, Edward, on parent-teacher associations, 372.
- Hygiene, college work, 357; dental, societies, 336-337; mental, education, 350-352; school, 46, 472 sex. *See* Sex hygiene.
- I.
- Idaho, traveling libraries, 390.
- Idaho, University of, library economy, instruction, 383.
- Ihlder, John, on sanitary inspection, 308-309.
- Illinois, money for State education building, 36; statistics of teachers, 120; vocational education, legislation, 286.
- Illinois, University of, library economy, instruction, 383.
- Illiteracy, campaign against, Kentucky, 215-216; Tennessee, 222; general statistics, xix, xxii-xxv; statistics, Asiatic Turkey, 573.
- Imperial Teachers' Congress, London, review of proceedings, 628-629.
- Inaugurations of college presidents, 32.
- India, education, general survey and statistics, 594-599; new university, 625.
- Indian education, development and present status, 420-428.
- Indiana, progress of rural schools, 213; social hygiene, 343; traveling libraries, 390; vocational education, legislation, 282-284.
- Indiana Commission on Industrial Education, investigations and recommendations, 277-280.
- Indiana University, library economy, instruction, 383.
- Industrial and educational exhibit, St. Petersburg, 635.
- Industrial education, Asiatic Turkey, 574-575; Canada, 467-468; city school systems, 145-148; commissions, 277-280; legislation, 75-80, 277; New South Wales, 608-610; Philippine Islands, 435-438; Porto Rico, 449-450; training of teachers, 293-296; Western Australia, 611-613. *See also* Vocational education.
- Industrial establishments, health work of typical, 352-354.
- Industrial schools, rural, for negroes, 255-256.
- Industrial, trade, and technical schools, partial list of new, 297.
- Industrial work, home, school credit for, 202-206.
- Industries, unhealthful, report, 306-307.
- Infant Welfare Association of New Haven, Conn., 322.
- Infant Welfare Department of Duluth Consistory, Scottish Rite Masons, work, 323.
- Infant Welfare Society of Chicago, work, 321.
- Inspectors, rural schools, 189-196.
- Instruction, methods, contradictory criticisms, 11-12.
- Intermediate schools, Oakland, Cal., schedule of studies, 156.
- International celebrations and congresses, review, 627-635.
- International Congress for Drawing and Art Instruction, Dresden, proceedings, 630.
- International Congress for the Study of the History of Art, proceedings, 634.
- International Congress of American Students, Buenos Aires, proceedings, 629.
- International Congress of Applied Chemistry, New York City, proceedings, 638.
- International Congress of Chambers of Commerce, etc., Boston, proceedings, 633.
- International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, Washington, proceedings, 633-634.
- International Congress of Mathematicians, Cambridge, England, proceedings, 630-631.
- International Congress of the History of Religions, Leiden, proceedings, 631-632.
- International Congress on Eugenics, London, 629-630.
- International Educational and Industrial Exhibition, St. Petersburg, classification of exhibits, 635.
- International exchange of students, 46-47.
- International foundations, 617-620.
- International interchange, universities, 43-49.
- International interest, events, 617-635.
- International Moral Education Congress, proceedings, 632.
- International Musical Festival, Paris, proceedings, 627-628.
- Iowa, rural school commission, 185-187; traveling libraries, 390-391.
- Iowa, University of, library instruction, 383.
- Iowa State College, new president, 35.
- Ireland, education, 505-510.
- Italy, education, 550-564.

J.

- James, E. J., on National university, 36-37.
 Japan, education, survey and statistics, 589-593.
 Jeanes Fund, work, 246-247.
 Jenks, F. B., A review of agricultural education in 1911-12, 263-280.
 Jews, Asiatic Turkey, interest in education, 572-573.
 Johns Hopkins University, appropriations for applied science and advanced technology, 80; benefaction, 41.
 Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Industry of Greater New York, work, 353-354.
 Jones, T. J., Recent movements in negro education, 243-256.
 Journalism, education, 115-119; lecture courses in German universities, 119.
 • Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio, course of study, 156.
 Juvenile courts, development, 361-362; legislation, 82.
 Juvenile workers, England and Wales, extension or medical service, 496.

K.

- Kansas, traveling libraries, 391-392.
 Kansas State Agriculture College, library economy, instruction, 383.
 Katmai volcano, Alaska, eruption, 409-410.
 Kentucky, educational legislation, 50, 54, 56-58, 61, 63-64, 68-69, 72, 80-81, 206-207, 277; eradication of illiteracy, 215-216; progress of rural schools, 214-216; school building commission, 63; traveling libraries, 392.
 Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored Persons, appropriation for, 80.
 Kentucky Society for the Prevention of Blindness, work, 334.
 Kerfoot, S. F., president of Hamline University, 35.
 Kerschensteiner, Georg, American tour, 146.
 Kilpatrick, W. H., on Montessori movement, 27.
 Kindergarten and Montessori movement, 27; city school systems, 148-149.
 Knoxville, Tenn., city schools, simplification of course of study, 140.
 Kovalevsky, Evgrav, on educational work of the third Duma, Russia, 582-583.

L.

- La Crosse, Wis., city schools, simplification of course of study, 140.
 Lake Forest College, Ill., benefactions, 40.
 Lane Technical High School, Chicago, junior-college work, 101.
 Languages, modern, conference, 628.
 Latin-American States, education, 471-485.
 Latin language, high schools, criticism, 9.
 Law schools, discontinuance of, 102.
 League of Library Commissions, work, 404-405.
 Leavenworth, Kans., city schools, simplification of course of study, 140.
 Legislation, educational, 49-82, 276-277, 281-287, 440-442, 564, 580-581. *See also under names of States.*

- Lever bill (U. S. House of Representatives), vocational education, 148, 282.
 Lexington, Ky., reorganization of school board, 58.
 Librarians, appointments during 1911-12, 405-406.
 Libraries, benefactions, 42, 379; development 379-406.
 Lopp, W. T., Report on education in Alaska, 407-420.
 Los Angeles, Cal., growth of kindergartens, 149; high schools, 101.
 Los Angeles Society of Social Hygiene, work, 341.
 Louisiana, educational legislation, 50, 54, 57-58, 61, 64-65, 79.
 Lowell, D. O. S., on peculiar traits of American life, 14.
 Lunches, school. *See School lunches.*
- M.**
- Macalester College, Minn., benefactions, 40.
 McKeesport, Pa., city schools, simplification of course of study, 140.
 Maine, progress of rural schools, 216-217; traveling libraries, 392.
 Maine, University of, library economy, instruction, 383.
 Manchester, N. H., gift of public library, 379.
 Manitoba, manual training schools, 467.
 Manual arts, instruction, Canada, 463-464.
 Manual training, schools, Canada, 466-467.
 Martin, G. H., on play movement and vocational movement, 23.
 Martin, W. J., president of Davidson College, 35.
 Maryland, country life commission, 76; educational legislation, 53, 59-60, 65, 67-70, 74, 80, 82.
 Maryland Society for the Prevention of Blindness, work, 334.
 Maryland Society of Social Hygiene, work, 342.
 Massachusetts, agricultural fairs, premiums on animals and farm crops, 277; educational legislation, 51, 55, 58-59, 63, 68, 71, 74, 77-78, 80, 82; progress of rural schools, 217; traveling libraries, 392; vocational education, 281-282, 286, 296.
 Massachusetts Agricultural College, courses, 265-266; State appropriations, 51.
 Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, work, 335.
 Massachusetts Commission for the Blind, work, 336.
 Massachusetts Hospitals for Consumptives, educational work, 329.
 Massachusetts Institute of Technology, benefactions, 41; State scholarships, 80.
 Massachusetts Milk Consumers' Association, work, 354-355.
 Mathematics, international congress, 630-631.
 Maxwell, W. H., on sex instruction in city schools, 168-169; tenure of office, 138.
 Mead, E. D., on development of cosmopolitan clubs, 46.
 Meals, provision for, school children of England and Wales, 495.
 Mearns, W. H., on uniform standards in the high schools, 4-5.
 Mechanical and mining engineering, problems, 87.
 Medical inspection of schools, 162; England and Wales, 491-494; France, 523.

Medical schools, discontinuance, 102; legislation, 81.
 Medical work, Alaska, 408-409.
 Medicine, reorganization of studies in France, 534-535.
 Meiklejohn, Alexander, inaugurated as president of Amherst College, 33-34; on the ideals of the college teacher, 33-34.
 Mental hygiene, education, 350-352.
 Messenger laws, child labor legislation, 71.
 Methodist Episcopal Church, campaign for negro schools, 254.
 Methodist Episcopal Church South, tabulation of its educational institutions, 100.
 Methodist Federation for Social Service, work, 344-345.
 Metropolitan Museum of Art, benefaction, 42.
 Mexico, education, 471-472.
 Mexico, University of, work, 626.
 Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, library instruction, 384.
 Michigan, progress of rural schools, 217.
 Michigan, University of, seventy-fifth anniversary, 36; benefaction, 41; instruction in bibliography, 334.
 Middlebury College, Vt., benefaction, 41.
 Miles, H. E., on industrial education, 147-148.
 Milk, clean, associations for securing, 354-355.
 Mills College, Cal., library economy, instruction, 384.
 Milwaukee Child-Welfare Commission, educational work, 318-319.
 Minnesota, State board of control, functions, 89; traveling libraries, 392-393.
 Minnesota, University of, course in agriculture, 266; function of State board of control, 89.
 Minnesota State Board of Health, work, 315.
 Missions, educational work, Turkish Empire, 574-575.
 Missions, foreign, work, 620.
 Mississippi, educational legislation, 53, 60, 62, 68, 70-71, 78-80, 277; progress of rural schools, 217-219.
 Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College, new president, 35.
 Missouri, progress of rural schools, 219.
 Missouri, University of, course in journalism, 113.
 Modern Language Conference, Frankfort on the Main, proceedings, 628.
 Monahan, A. C., Rural education, 177-225.
 Montana, University of, new president, 35; statistics of students, 85.
 Montana State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, statistics of students, 85.
 Montana State School of Mines, statistics of students, 85.
 Montenegro, education, 577.
 Montessori system, discussion, 26-28, 149.
 Moral education, international congress, 632; city school system, 143-145.
 Morgan, J. P., gift to Trinity College, Conn., 379.
 Mormons, schools in American Samoa, 456.
 Mortier, Professor, on vocational education in France, 527.
 Mount Holyoke College, Mass., benefaction, 41; seventy-fifth anniversary, 35.
 Münsterburg, Hugo, on teaching profession, 10.
 Municipal health associations, work, 315-325.
 Music, international congress, Paris, 627-628; instruction, Porto Rico, 450.

N.

National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children, work, 258-260.
 National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, report on open-air schools, 163.
 National Association of Manufacturers, and Vocational Education, 288-289.
 National Civic Federation on Dangerous and Unhealthful Industries, investigations, 306-308.
 National Committee for Mental Hygiene, educational work, 350.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction, and conservation of health, 305-306.
 National Congress of Mothers, and child hygiene, 306; parent-teacher cooperative associations, work, 359-373.
 National Council of Education, commission on school efficiency, 16.
 National Country Life Congress, work, 223.
 National Education Association, and vocational education, 289; committee on rural schools, outline of work, 182-185; investigation into question of teachers' salaries, 29-32; report of secretary, 357-377; report on teachers' pensions, 151; resolutions regarding the exceptional child, 261-262.
 National Government, and vocational education, 282.
 National Housing Association, educational work, 308-309.
 National League on Urban Conditions, work, 358.
 National Mouth Hygiene Association, work, 336-337.
 National Pan-Hellenic Congress of College Fraternities, and secondary schools, 158.
 National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, and Vocational Education, 290-291.
 National University, plan, 36-38.
 National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, work, 306.
 Nebraska, traveling libraries, 393.
 Negro Organization Society of Virginia, work, 250, 357-358.
 Negroes, agricultural education, Louisiana, 79; educational benefactions, 40; illiteracy, xxiii; industrial education, legislation, 80; industrial supervisors, rural schools, 194-196; organizations for health teaching, 357-358; recent movements in education, 243-256; Roman Catholic schools, 232-233; schools, 252, 254; self-help, 254; teachers' salaries and certificates, 253-254.
 Netherlands, The, education, 519-520.
 Nevada, University of, benefaction, 41.
 New Bedford, Mass., proposed legislation regarding school committee, 58.
 New Britain, Conn., differentiation in grammar-school courses, 142.
 New Brunswick, Canada, manual training schools, 466.
 New Hampshire College of Agricultural and Mechanic Arts, new president, 34.
 New Haven, Conn., teachers' salaries, 29.
 New Jersey, educational legislation, 50-51, 56, 67-68, 71-72, 74, 80-81, 82, 208, 284; traveling libraries, 393-394.
 New Orleans, reorganization of school board, 58; teachers' tenure of office, 65.
 New Mexico, educational legislation, 49, 54, 59-60, 74, 78, 277, 287.

- New Mexico, University of, library economy, instruction, 384; new president, 35.
- New South Wales, education, 608-610.
- New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, educational work, 316-317.
- New York Association for the Blind, work, 335.
- New York City, early nineteenth century schools, 12; child hygiene, 319-320; growth of kindergartens, 149; health work, 356; pay of high school principles, 56; public schools, inquiry (*Hanus*), 19-21; school administration, 126; teachers' salaries, elementary schools, 151; vacation schools, 159; vocational guidance survey, 25-26.
- New York, College of the City of, benefactions, 41.
- New York Diet Kitchen Association, educational work, 322.
- New York Public Library, benefaction, 42.
- New York State, bureau of industries and immigration, 325; educational legislation, 50, 67, 71, 81-82; traveling libraries, 394; vocational education, 285-286, 296.
- New York State Education Building, Albany, dedication, 36.
- New York University, benefaction, 41-42.
- New Zealand, education, 613-615.
- Newark, N. J., vacation schools, 161-162.
- Newman, George, on medical inspection of schools, 491-492.
- Newman, S. M., president of Howard University, 34.
- Newport, Ky., reorganization of school board, 58.
- Night schools, Porto Rico, 451.
- Normal schools, legislation, 68; résumé of statistics; training teachers for elementary schools, 119-124.
- North Carolina, educational legislation, 62; progress of rural schools, 219-220.
- North Carolina State Board of Health, work, 314-315.
- North Dakota, rural school commission, 187-188.
- North Dakota, University of, library economy, instruction, 383.
- Northern Europe, education, 511-520.
- Northwestern University, benefaction, 41.
- Norway, education, 515-516.
- Nova Scotia, technical education, 465.
- O.**
- Oakland, Cal., city schools, simplification of course of study, 139; intermediate schools, schedule of studies, 156; open-air schools, 163.
- Oberlin College, Ohio, benefaction, 41; library economy, instruction, 384.
- Ohio, city school boards, 120-129; correlation of State-supported and State-controlled universities, 97.
- Ohio Commission for the Blind, work, 334.
- Ohio State University, agricultural bibliography, instruction, 383; graduate school of agriculture, 264.
- Oklahoma, University of, inauguration of S. D. Brooks as president, 34.
- Oliver, J. P., on negro education, 247-248.
- Open-air schools, city school systems, 162-165.
- Oregon, engineering education, correlation, 87; traveling libraries, 395.
- Oregon Agricultural College, library economy, instruction, 383.
- Organization, school, Catholic school system, 228-229; problem, 6.
- Orphan asylums, Roman Catholic, 232.
- O'Shea, M. V., on parent-teacher associations, 372.
- Overlock, M. G., on personal hygiene and preventive medicine, 330-331.
- P.**
- Paducah, Ky., reorganization of school board, 58.
- Page bill (U. S. Senate), vocational education, 148, 282.
- Panama, education, 473-474.
- Paraguay, education, 481.
- Parent-teacher cooperative associations, 359-373.
- Parkin, G. R., on the Rhodes scholarships, 47-48.
- Parochial schools, Roman Catholic, 232, 239-241.
- Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., benefaction, 42.
- Peabody Educational Fund, disbursements, 39.
- Peace movement, status, 618-620.
- Pearson, R. A., president of Iowa State College, 35.
- Pennsylvania, school administration, 127; traveling libraries, 395; vocational education, legislation, 284.
- Pennsylvania, University of, benefaction, 42.
- Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Social Diseases, work, 339.
- Pennsylvania State College, bibliography, instruction, 383.
- Pensions, teachers, city school systems, 151-152; legislation, 65-68.
- Perry, A. C., on problems of the elementary school, 4.
- Perry, C. A., on school social centers, 170.
- Peru, education, 481-482.
- Philadelphia, early nineteenth century schools, 12.
- Philippine Bureau of Education, work, 432-435.
- Philippine Islands, education (1910-1912), 428-442.
- Philippine School of Arts and Trades, work, 438.
- Philippine School of Commerce, work, 438-439.
- Physical welfare, school children, 162-170.
- Pittsburgh, Pa., reorganization of school system, 130-131.
- Play movement, 23.
- Playground and Recreation Association of America, educational work, 309.
- Playgrounds, city school systems, 173-175; legislation, 73-74.
- Poincaré, M., on education in France, 526.
- Pomona College, new president, 35.
- Porto Rico, education, 444-453.
- Porto Rico, University of, new president, 35.
- Portugal, education, 567.
- "Practical" and "cultural" subjects, 10.
- Presbyterian Board of Aid for Colleges and Academies, benefaction, 42.
- Presbyterian Board of Home Missions, health-teaching work, 344.
- Presidents, college, inauguration, 32.
- Primary schools, Russia, statistics, 580.
- Prince Edward Island, Canada, manual training schools, 466.
- Princeton University, and examinations, 12; benefactions, 42; elective and prescribed studies, 33; inauguration of president, 32-33.
- Private schools, Australia, statistics, 607.
- Professional investigations, city school systems, 132-136.

Professional schools, discontinuance as departments of universities, 102; legislation, 81; statistics, xvii. Professorships, secondary education, State universities of the South, 40.

Programs, reconstructive, 15-16.

Programs and standards of education, 18.

Property, total value, State school systems, xv.

Prosser, C. A., Progress in vocational education, 281-297.

Providence, R. I., board of education, legislation, 59.

Providence Nursing Association, work, 318.

Prussia, exchange of teachers between, and United States, 44-45; training of teachers, 557.

Public schools, business methods, legislation, 60-61; current criticisms, 2-15; democracy and, 15; inaccuracy and, 14-15; measuring by results, 13; needs, 17-18; negroes, notable improvements, 243-246; problem of organization, 6; wider activities, 5. *See also* City school systems; State school systems.

Pulitzer, Joseph, on study of journalism, 115-116.

Pupils, elimination of the "average," 13-14; high schools, statistics, xvi.

Purdue University, Ind., agricultural education, 265.

Q.

"Quiet zones" around schools, 169-170.

R.

Reed College, Oreg., extension course on sexual hygiene and morals, 344.

Reindeer service, Alaska, report, 415-420.

Religions, international congress, 631-632.

Religious education, Cape Colony, 602-603; Saxony, 544-545.

Religious organizations, health teaching, 344-348.

Religious question, Germany, discussion, 546-548.

Rhode Island, educational legislation, 51-52, 54, 59, 74, 78, 81, 277, 286-287.

Rhodes scholarships, status, 47-48.

Rice Institute of Liberal and Technical Learning, resources, 114.

Robert College, Constantinople, Turkey, work, 42, 570-572.

Rochester Dental Society, educational work, 337.

Rochester Public Health Association, educational work, 317-318.

Rochester, University of, benefactions, 40, 42.

Rockefeller Sanitary Commission for the Eradication of Hookworm Disease, work, 355-356.

Roman Catholic schools, Canada, 461; general survey and statistics, 227-241.

Roseberry, *Earl of*, on universities and the British Empire, 621.

Roumania, education, 577.

Rural education, general survey, 177-225; legislation, 206-208; publications, 210-212.

Rural library extension, 384-389.

Rural school commissions, State, 185-188.

Rural schools, Canada, 466; Denmark, 512-513; general survey, 177-225.

Rural uplift, England and Wales, 408-409; Ireland, 507-508; legislation, 76-77; Russia, 583-585.

Russell Sage Foundation, and educational problems, 17.

Russia, education, 579-587.

Ryan, W. C., jr., Education in Germany, 539-558; Survey of education during 1911-12, 1-48.

S.

St. Louis Society for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis, work, 327.

St. Louis Society of Social Hygiene, work, 342-343.

St. Paul, Minn., gift for public library, 379.

Salaries, city superintendents, 136-137; county superintendents, legislation, 56-58.

Salaries, teachers, city school systems, 149-151; investigation, 29-31; legislation, 64-65; negro schools, 253; Porto Rico, 453; Spain, 565-566; State school systems, xv.

Salem, Mass., school committee, legislation, 58.

Samoa, American, education, 455-456.

San Francisco, gift of public library, 379.

San Francisco Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 327-328.

Santa Clara, University of, change of name, 103-104.

Savings banks, school. *See* School savings banks.

Saxony, proposed school law, 541-546

Scholarships, legislation, 80-81.

School administration. *See* Administration, school.

School age, State school systems, xv.

School boards, city, reductions, 127-128; diocesan, 229-230, 237-238; municipal legislation, 58-59.

School bonds, legislation, 61-63.

School building commission, Kentucky, 63.

School buildings. *See* Buildings, school.

School finance, legislation, 59-60.

School funds. *See* Funds, school.

School gardens, city school systems, 170-172.

School hygiene, international congress, 46; Mexico, 472.

School improvement associations, rural schools, 196-197.

School inquiries, 16.

School laws. *See* Legislation.

School lunches, city school systems, 165-166.

School of Eugenics of Boston, instruction in sex hygiene, 341-342.

School officers, legislation, 53-58.

School organization. *See* Organization, school.

School savings banks, city systems, 172-173.

School supervision. *See* Supervision, school.

School systems. *See* City school systems; State school systems.

School term, average annual, State school systems, xviii-xxii.

Science, applied, appropriations for, 80.

Scotland, education, 500-505.

Seaman A. Knapp School of Country Life, establishment, 39.

Seattle Society of Social and Moral Hygiene, educational work, 339.

Secondary education, Argentina, 477; France, 528-533; postponement, 6; professorships, State universities of the South, 40; Russia, statistics, 585.

Secondary schools, anniversaries, 36; negroes, 254.

Selma University, Ala., funds for, 254.

Seminaries, Roman Catholic, statistics, 231, 239-241.

Servia, education, 576-577.

Sewing, instruction, Porto Rico, 450.

Sex hygiene, organizations, 337-344.

Sex instruction, city school systems, 166-169.

Shepard, Irwin, services to National Education Association, 376-377.

"Six-and-six" plan, grammar schools of New England, 141.

Slaton, W. M., on parent-teacher associations, 371-372.

- Smith, Anna T., Educational activities in Canada, 459-469.
- Smith, C. A. M., on engineering department of the University of Hongkong, 625.
- Smith, H. L., president of Washington and Lee University, 35.
- Smyrna, Turkey, education, 572.
- Snedden, David, on parent-teacher associations, 372.
- Social centers, city school systems, 170.
- Social hygiene. *See* Sex instruction.
- Social Hygiene Society of Portland, Oreg., educational work, 340.
- Social League of Middletown, Conn., health work, 324-325.
- Social purity, organizations, 337-344.
- Social service work. *See* Health-teaching agencies.
- South Africa, education, 601-604; project of a university, 625-626.
- South American Republics, education, 474-485.
- South Carolina, educational legislation, 53, 57, 59, 60, 63, 71-73, 79, 81-82, 207-208; negro schools, progress, 246; progress of rural schools, 220-222;
- South End House Women's Residence, Boston, health education, 320.
- Southern Europe, education, 559-577.
- Southern States, benefactions for demonstrations in agriculture, 40; boy prize winners, corn raising, 200; professorships of secondary education, 40; schoolhouse construction, use of bonds, 63.
- Southern University, La., reorganization, 79.
- Spain, education, 564-566.
- Special classes, schools, legislation, 81.
- Spelling, written tests, 7-8.
- Spokane Society for Social and Moral Hygiene, work, 344.
- Springfield, Mass., schools, old sets of examination questions, 7-8.
- Standardization, colleges, 97-102.
- Standards and programs of education, 18.
- State boards of education, legislation, 53-55.
- State boards of health, educational campaigns, 314-315.
- State Charities Aid Association of New York, educational work, 332-333; mental hygiene movement 351-352.
- State College of Washington, summer school of agriculture, 266.
- State Education Building, Albany, N. Y., dedication, 36.
- State school systems, attendance, xv; enrollment, xv.
- State superintendents, legislation, 55-56.
- State-supported institutions, correlation, 84-88.
- State universities, centralization of control, 88-97.
- Strathcona, Lord, on development of higher institutions in Canada, 622.
- Students, Chinese, and the revolution, 48; international congress, 46; international exchange, 46-47; negro schools, enrollment, 253.
- Studies, elective and prescribed, colleges, 33.
- Subnormal child. *See* Exceptional children.
- Summer schools, résumé of statistics, xviii.
- Sunday-School Superintendents' Union of Boston and Vicinity, health teaching work, 345-346.
- Superintendents, Alaskan service, 411.
- Superintendents, city, notable changes during 1911-12, 138; salaries and tenure of office, 136-138.
- Supervision, school, criticisms of, 6-7; Roman Catholic schools, 230-231.
- Supervisors, county, rural schools, 192-196; Roman Catholic schools, statistics, 237-238; State, negro rural schools, 248-249; rural schools, 189-192.
- Sweden, education, 515.
- Swimming, instruction, 347.
- Switzerland, education, 535-538.
- Syria, educational activities, 574.
- T.
- Tate, W. K.; on negro schools of South Carolina, 246.
- Teachers, and the high cost of living, 28-32; agriculture, lack of properly trained, 268; Alaskan service, 412-414; American, Philippine Islands, 429-431; associations, negroes, 250; certificates, negro schools, 253; college, ideals, 33-34; conferences, Porto Rico, 451; examination and certification, legislation, 64; expenditures, 32; Filipino, status, 431-432; France, changed conditions, 523-526; Germany, status and training, 556-558; Guam, statistics, 457; home ownership, 30; inadequacy of supply, 11; industrial, 193-196, 247; institutes, 124; international visits, 45-46; lack of preparation, xviii; life insurance, 31; negro schools, 253; pensions. *See* Pensions; teachers; persons dependent upon, for support, 29-30; preparation in Spain, 565; property, 30; Prussian exchange, 44-45; public elementary and high schools, number, xvi; public elementary schools, England and Wales, 489-491; quality of instruction, 10; salaries. *See* Salaries; teachers; savings, 31; syndicates, France, complications, 524-526; tenure of office, legislation, 64-65; training, Cape Colony, 603; courses of study in Bavaria and Prussia, 557; elementary schools, 119-124; vocational education, 293-295.
- Technical education, Belgium, 518-519; Ireland, 508-509; legislation, 80; Russia, review and statistics, 586-587.
- Tennessee, campaign against illiteracy, 222; progress of rural schools, 220; traveling libraries, 395-396.
- Tennessee Federation of Women's Clubs, work, 334.
- Tenure of office, city superintendents, 137-138.
- Texas Anti-Tuberculosis Association, work, 328.
- Textbooks, commission abolished, Louisiana, 54-55; legislation, 73; used in Guam, 457.
- Theological schools, correlation of universities, 107-110.
- Thomas, M. C., on higher education of women, 35.
- Thompson, W. O., on a National university, 38.
- Time schedules, city school systems, 145.
- Townsley, C. P., superintendent of United States Military Academy, 35.
- Trade schools, recommended, 288.
- Trades' unions, attitude toward vocational education, 288-290.
- Transportation of pupils to school, legislation, 71-73.
- Transylvania University, benefaction, 42.
- Traveling libraries, development, 389-397.
- Trinity College, Conn., benefactions, 42, 379.
- Tuberculosis, educational campaign against. *See* Health-teaching agencies; effect of open-air schools on, 163.
- Turkey, education, 569-575.

U.

- United Agricultural Board of Virginia, reorganization, 76.
 United States, Federal aid for vocational education, 282.
 United States Bureau of Education, bulletins on vocational training, 293; collaborators, 181; division of rural education, 180-182; standardization of higher institutions, xvi.
 United States Congress, measures providing aid for vocational education, 282.
 United States Department of Agriculture, report on corn clubs, 200.
 United States Military Academy, new superintendent, 35.
 United States Public Health Service, educational work, 302.
 Universities, Australia, statistics, 607; Canada, statistics, 469; China, 625; correlation with theological schools, 107-110; foreign, new, 624-626; Great Britain and Ireland, statistics of attendance, 510; inauguration of presidents, 32-33; international relations, new official arrangements, 43; Japan, statistics, 592; Mexico, 626; Russia, statistics, 585; State, centralization of control, 88-97; State, France, statistics, 533-534. *See also* Colleges and universities; Higher education.
 Universities and theological schools, correlation, 107-110.
 University events, review, 620-627.
 University of the South, discontinuance of law and medical schools, 102.
 Uruguay, education, 482-484.
 Utah Agricultural College, library economy, instruction, 383.

V.

- Vacation schools, city school systems, 159-162.
 Van Hise, C. H., on a National university, 37-38.
 Venezuela, education, 484-485.
 Vermont, traveling libraries, 396.
 Victoria, Australia, education, 610-611.
 Villanova College, Pa., benefaction, 42.
 Virginia, educational legislation, 52, 62, 66-67, 81-82; farm demonstration work, 76-77; traveling libraries, 397.
 Virginia Military Institute, State cadets, relieved of obligation to teach, 81.
 Visiting Nurse Association of Detroit, work, 318.
 Visiting Nurse Society of Philadelphia, work, 318.
 Vocational agricultural training, newest forms, 268-271.
 Vocational education, 21-24; England, 496-498, 499-500; exceptional children, 258; France, 526-527; Germany, 548-554; legislation, 78, 281-287; New South Wales, 608-610; progress, 281-297. *See also* Continuation schools; Industrial education, Trade schools.
 Vocational Guidance Survey of New York City, organization and work, 24-25.
 Vocational schools, new, Massachusetts, 296.

W.

- Wales, education. *See* England and Wales.
 Wang, Ching-Chun, on effects of American education upon Chinese students, 48.
 Washington, B. T., on negro education, 254-255.
 Washington, progress of rural schools, 222-223; traveling libraries, 397; vocational education, legislation, 286.
 Washington, University of, course in journalism, 118; library economy, instruction, 383.
 Washington and Lee University, new president, 35.
 Weeks, Mary H., Purposes, methods, and results of the Parent-Teacher Cooperative Associations of the National Congress of Mothers, 359-373.
 Welfare work, children, Belgium, 517-518; England and Wales, 491-492; Scotland, 505. *See also* Health-teaching agencies.
 West Virginia, centralized government, State-supported institutions, 91; progress of rural schools, 223-225.
 West Virginia Society of Social Hygiene, work, 340.
 West Virginia University, library economy, instruction, 384; summer school of agriculture, 266.
 Western Australia, education, 611-613.
 White, F. R., on education in the Philippines, 428-442.
 Whitman College, Wash., benefactions, 40, 42.
 Widener, Mrs. G. D., gift to Harvard University, 379.
 Winona, Minn., city schools, simplification of course of study, 140.
 Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, S. C., experimental rural school, 220-221.
 Wirt, W. A., on advantages of "Gary plan," 130.
 Wisconsin, progress of rural schools, 225; rural school commission, 188-189; traveling libraries, 397; vocational education, 147, 296, 281.
 Wolcott, J. D., Recent aspects of library development, 379-406.
 Women, education, Japan, 591; higher education, Russia, 586; public health education among, 310-314; teachers, equal pay to that of men, 150-151.
 Women's clubs, and agricultural education, 275.
 Women's Municipal League of Boston, infant social service, 320-321.
 Woonsocket, R. I., board of education, legislation, 59.
 Worcester Polytechnic Institute, benefactions, 42.
 Work, M. N., on negro education, 251.
 World Missionary Conference, continuation committee work, 620.
 World's Purity Federation, work, 341.
 Wright, H. F., Roman Catholic schools, 227-241.
 Wyoming, University of, new president, 35.

Y.

- Yale University, and examinations, 12; benefactions, 42.
 Young, E. F., on kindergarten movement, 149; on parent-teacher associations, 373.
 Young Men's Christian Association, international committee, health-teaching work, 346-347.
 Young Women's Christian Association, health-teaching work, 348.

